The Nation.

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The Week.

THE following extraordinary confession about the silver question is made by President Harrison in his message:

"To the plan which will be presented by the Secretary of the Treasury for the issuance of notes or certificates upon the deposit of silver bullion at its market value, I have been able to give only a hasty examination. . . . At a later day I may communicate further with Congress upon this subject."

It must be remembered that the silver question has been for ten years the most important question—after the tariff—before the country, and that it has entered on an acute stage since President Harrison came into office, owing to the determination of the mine-owners to discover some method of making the Government buy more of their products. One of the first things Gen. Harrison ought to have done when he came into office was to study it thoroughly, so as to have a manly opinion about it when Congress met. He now confesses, after he has been nine months in office, that he knows nothing about it, and has only given his Secretary's remarkable scheme "a hasty examination." "What has he been doing to prevent his giving it attention?" the public may well ask. The answer is, that he has been all these nine months dividing small offices among a parcel of paltry schemers and political adventurers, and this in the teeth of a solemn promise, made before election, that he would do nothing of the kind. In other words, he has in nine months rendered no proper service for his salary, besides bitterly disappointing the good folks who believed that he was an honest and faithful, as well as a pious, man.

We have received letters asking us to explain Secretary Windom's plan for dealing with the silver question, the writers saying that although they have read it, they do not understand it. Perhaps the best explanation may be given by an illustration. The Secretary states his plan in these words:

"Issue Treasury notes against deposits of silver bullion at the market price of silver when deposited, payable on demand in such quantities of silver bullion as will equal in value, at the date of presentation, the number of dollars expressed on the face of the notes at the market price of silver; or in gold, at the option of the Government; or in silver dollars, at the option of the holder. Repeal the compulsory feature of the present coinage act."

Under this plan a depositor of 1,000 ounces of silver bullion, when the market price is 94 cents per ounce, would receive Treasury notes (not legal tender) to the amount of $940. These Treasury notes the depositor could pay to anybody who should be willing to receive them. The Government would be obliged to redeem the certificates either in gold at par, or by giving a quantity of silver bullion equal in market value to the face of the notes at the time when redemption was called for. In other words, the Government would redeem the notes either by paying $940 gold, or by turning over to the holder as much silver bullion as would sell for $940 gold in the market, at its own option. But the holder would have the option of taking $940 in standard silver dollars in lieu of either of these modes of payment, and his option would be paramount. In the event that silver has fallen in price meanwhile, the Government will lose the difference. If it has risen in price, the Government will make a profit. The Government under this plan becomes an insurer of silver, but, in order to guard against speculation and combination, the Secretary asks for power to sell silver bullion in the market. The plan is not easily understood except by experts and economists, and this is one of the arguments against its adoption. It is of the first importance that all laws regulating the currency of the country should be simple and free from mystery.

Mr. Windom mentions in his report "one cause which, probably more than any other except hostile legislation, has depressed the market value of silver, namely, the sale of Indian Council bills." He adds:

"About 1867 a diminution in the flow of silver to the East was clearly marked. This was due to the use of bills of exchange, called 'Council bills,' sold by the India Council of the Government of India residing in London. These bills of exchange, which are claims for certain sums of silver, are bought by merchants wishing to make payments in India, silver being the standard and only legal tender in that empire; so that just as the expenses of the Indian Government rose, and, in consequence, the number of Council bills offered for sale in London increased, the exportation of silver to India was saved. . . .

"These $50,000,000 to $90,000,000 of Council bills, payable in silver, annually thrown upon the market, affect the price of silver as would the sale of so much bullion. That these Council bills hang like an incubus upon the price of silver cannot be doubted, and they must enter largely into any inquiry as to the causes of depreciation, and into any estimate of the probable advance of that metal."

All this is very dark and needs much elucidation. "Council bills" are simply bills of exchange drawn on the Indian Treasury by the home Government. They are payable in India in silver, and they are therefore bought, like all other bills of exchange in London, by merchants who owe silver in India, to save themselves the cost and trouble of sending silver to India. The Government draws and sells them to save the Indian Treasury the trouble and expense of sending silver to London. The use of them doubtless occasionally prevents a slight temporary rise of silver in London, and a slight temporary rise of silver in Calcutta and Bombay. They do not, of course, either increase or diminish by one ounce the quantity of silver in the market. They simply save cost of transportation. How, then, they "hang like an incubus on the silver market," passes comprehension. All that the Secretary offers in support of his view is figures showing that, as the amount of Council bills increases, the imports of silver into India from England decrease. But he might also show that for the very same reason the exports of silver from India decrease. They do not affect the general and permanent demand for silver, except in so far as they prevent a certain quantity of it being boxed up for four weeks at a time in steamers between London and Bombay. Great quantities of bills of exchange payable in gold pass every week between London and New York. Are they an "incubus" on gold?

Under the head of "Deposits of Public Money," Secretary Windom makes an elaborate attack on his predecessor in office. He thinks that the deposit of public money in the banks is contrary to the spirit of the subtreasury act, and that it "necessarily involves the temptation to favoritism of the most objectionable character"; also, that "it is grossly unjust to the Government to grant the free use of its money while it pays to the very parties thus favored 4 and 4½ per cent. interest on its own bonds, which are pledged as security for the money thus received." He calls these deposits "one of the gravest inherited misfortunes of the Administration," and in fact lectures Mr. Fairchild through two full pages of his report, thus putting on record a reprimand by one Secretary of another. It would have been better manners (and in this we think that the whole business community will agree) if Mr. Windom had said that these deposits had been placed in the banks by his predecessor in the first instance under a doubt as to his legal authority to buy bonds at a premium beyond the amount required for the annual sinking fund, and that they had been continued down to the 4th of March, 1889, in order to avoid the payment of what were considered excessive premiums, but that he (the present Secretary) thought that better dispositions could be made. Then if he could give any reasons for continuing the deposits nearly a year after Mr. Fairchild went out of office and he came in, it would have been quite in order to state them. It is easy to see that these two pages in Mr. Windom's report are a late conception, and are in the nature of a stump speech, the effectiveness of which is much impaired by the lapse of time.

Secretary Windom says of a "horizontal" reduction of duties:

"It would diminish the demand for American labor and capital by the amount of labor and capital expended in foreign countries upon the production of such increased importations."

Well, if this be so, how would the importations be paid for? Does he mean to say that foreigners would furnish them gratis? If they send them here for sale, whose labor and capital would supply the means of settling the bills? If not American labor and capital, whose would they be? Importations are nearly all made to order, and are drawn against by the consignors of the goods abroad, and none are delivered unless the ex-

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porters feel sure of their pay. One of the crazes of the high-tariff men is that people go on importing foreign goods after the demand for their own products has ceased, or, in other words, when they are no longer able to pay for them. But every man, or nearly every man, who finds the demand for his own goods declining, cuts down his supply of other people's goods. This is "elementary," as the French say, and that Mr. Windom does not know it well we refuse to believe.

A nation which has escaped the threatened disgrace of having a commonplace Indianapolis lawyer receive the highest judicial honor, simply because he has been the President's law-partner, has especial reason for rejoicing that the vacant place on the Supreme bench has finally been awarded to so good a man as Judge Brewer of the United States Circuit Court—even if it be true, as the well-informed Washington correspondent of the Philadelphia *Inquirer* intimates, that the discreditable appointment of Attorney-General Miller is only postponed until the occurrence of another vacancy, which is soon expected through the resignation of one of the judges who have long been able to retire upon pensions. Judge Brewer has already served upon the bench more than a quarter of a century, having been steadily promoted from the Probate Court of his county in Kansas, through a District Court, and then the Supreme Court of that State, until, five years ago, he was appointed by President Arthur United States Circuit Judge for the Eighth Circuit. He has demonstrated, in this long judicial service, his entire fitness for a place on the highest bench; he is a man of the highest personal character, and, as he is only fifty-two years old, has every prospect of long service in his new office; and altogether his selection appears to merit unqualified praise.

The committee assignments made by Speaker Reed, so far as they have been announced, are satisfactory. It was quite proper that Mr. McKinley should be Chairman of the Ways and Means. He represents the dominant feeling of his party on the tariff question, whether it be the dominant feeling of the country or not. The chief interest attaches to the question whether the Committee as constituted will vote for the Senate Tariff Bill of the last Congress, with its increased duties on wool. It looks to us as though there might be two Republican members of the Committee who would not support such an increase. If so, the extremists will not be able to carry their point, for of course all the Democratic members will vote against such increase. Mr. Gear of Iowa, one of the new Ways and Means Committee, is quoted as saying since the November election in that State: "I am satisfied that the Republican party must either cut loose from its high-protection theories, and at once set about a radical reform of the present revenue system, or give up all hopes of a return of power." Whether he has said this or not, it is very likely that he has thought it. If Mr. Cannon is to be the master of his own Committee and remains of the same mind as formerly, the steamship subsidists will have a hard road to travel. He has been the most pronounced anti-subsidy man in the House of either party. On one notable occasion he defeated a subsidy bill after it had passed the Senate. That is, he took the leadership of the opposition and carried the House with him by sheer will-power and force of argument. This bill was known at the time as the John Roach Brazil mail subsidy. Its scalp hangs in Mr. Cannon's wigwam at this hour.

Senator Edmunds's plan for the foundation of a national university in Washington has been expected ever since the scheme of a Catholic University in the same city began to take shape. Senator Ingalls introduced a bill embodying the same idea four years ago, which was never acted on. Senator Edmunds's bill is intended to be, as Senator Ingalls's was, but more directly, a sort of Protestant offset to the Catholic institution, and expresses the dislike of the various evangelical denominations, especially of the West, to seeing the national capital made a great centre of Catholic influence. It is said to follow the lines of Senator Ingalls's as to organization. Senator Ingalls's bill provided for a Board of Regents, composed of members appointed by the Governor of each State, with five members-at-large to be appointed by the President, and a number of ex-officio members, to be furnished by various learned and scientific societies. Unless Senator Edmunds can improve on this, the scheme is doomed to failure as a University from the outset, although it might be in some ways a beneficial outlet for Government money. The governing body would be controlled by politicians, and be constantly subject to their criticisms and attacks in Congress, which would make it difficult for self-respecting scholars to keep their places in the University. There would probably soon arise in it Republican history and Democratic history, Republican political economy and Democratic political economy, and perhaps also party geology and chemistry. Fancy Mr. George Hoar or Senator Farwell or Rising-Sun-Stove-Polish Morse having a voice in directing the teaching in a great college, and we shall have an idea of the difficulties which might arise. All this was foreseen some time ago by some of the presidents of existing universities, and a movement was made, we do not know with what result—though it may be that Senator Edmunds's scheme is the result—to get the Government to endow a university in Washington to be controlled by some sort of joint Board furnished by the present colleges. It may be laid down as a rule that no real university can exist which is not governed by the Faculty. A university at Washington, so governed, might be the glory of the country, for the riches of Washington in libraries and scientific collections are now extraordinarily great. But a political college in whose doings every Son of Thunder whom the President or the Governor of a State wished to "recognize," would have a finger, would be simply, in the long run, a national shame.

A careful examination of the Republican press has not yet discovered any commendation of the endorsement which the President gives to the "Bill to Promote Mendicancy." The scheme was already so thoroughly discredited by public sentiment that a canvass of Republican editors would have shown a general agreement with the opinion recently expressed by the St. Paul *Pioneer-Press*, that "nobody believes in it but a few sentimentalists and surplus-killers." Now that Mr. Harrison has arrayed himself with this little band, the muzzled editors feel bound to suppress their honest convictions and keep silence about his folly; but the unmuzzled ones continue to speak their minds with entire freedom. Thus, the Buffalo *Express* says: "We are sorry to see the President flirting with that dangerous fad, national aid to education." After noting the qualification of his endorsement of the scheme, the *Express* adds: "But it is the entrance upon such a policy of pauperization that is to be dreaded. Better leave it alone. It is not needed." So, too, the Indianapolis *News*, an independent journal which supported Harrison for President, in the faith that he would have the courage to resist the Blair school of cranks, says: "Though he does not go the full length of a definite and colossal appropriation for years, as the Blair bill provided, he accepts it by espousing its principle and suggesting that it be tried for one year. This is most unsatisfactory; for while it is a full surrender to and embracing of the idea and action, it is done in a way that suggests timidity; the same in kind, but greater in degree, perhaps, than the attitude on tariff revision." The only result of the President's course in endorsing this demoralizing scheme, at a time when it has come to be almost universally condemned, will be to weaken himself; for it is obvious that nothing can now put strength into the bill itself.

Mr. Theodore Roosevelt has been denouncing, with praiseworthy vigor, the following story set afloat by the Indianapolis *Journal*, the President's family paper, on the authority of Senator Gorman of Maryland:

> "A very bright young man, of splendid physique, and perfectly familiar with every street and number in the city, submitted himself for examination for a position as letter-carrier. He could read and write, and had been attending night school, and was in every way fitted for a letter-carrier, but failed when asked the most direct route from Baltimore to China. He said he had never been in China, nor did he expect to go there, and he only wanted to be a letter-carrier."

Mr. Roosevelt pronounces this "absolutely false and foolish," and challenges the production of proof that any such question was ever asked. The proof will not be forthcoming. The story is simply a sample of hundreds which politicians circulate among their constituents. But it ought to be said, in excuse for Mr. Gorman and his kind, that we believe they rarely invent such stories themselves. They are in nine cases out of ten the production of candidates who have failed to pass the examination, or have only secured a low standing on the eligible list, and wish to

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account for their failure to their friends in some creditable way.

The *Civil-Service Reformer* publishes two letters—one from Charles J. Bonaparte and the other from Lucius B. Swift—to an unnamed correspondent who had asked them certain questions "in behalf of a Cabinet officer." The *Reformer* intimates that the questioner was the private secretary of Mr. Wanamaker. These questions were three in number, viz.: (1) whether civil-service reform does not logically require pensions for superannuated clerks; (2) whether there is not already an excess of certified candidates for clerkships; and (3) whether there is not serious danger that "in ten or fifteen years some of the departments will be seriously crippled by the inefficiency of old clerks who cannot be discharged." Mr. Bonaparte gives a stinging reply to the ignoramus who wrote or inspired the questions. "Civil-service reform has no more to do," he says, "with a system of superannuation pensions than it has with a system of compulsory vaccination." There is no more reason, and no less, why the Government should pension its clerks than why Mr. Wanamaker should pension his salesmen and shop-walkers. As to the excess of qualified applicants, a similar excess exists in the offices of merchants without harm. But it must be a great relief to a Cabinet officer having public duties to perform that he can refer Congressmen and politicians who are pushing him for places, to the law and the list, and show them that he has no power to answer their importunities. Finally, the Civil-Service Law does not prevent the discharging of anybody. It only prevents the filling of the discharged man's place by "pressure." Mr. Swift answers this interrogatory neatly thus:

> "The merit system puts no limits upon the power of removal for cause. It is cause for removal that a clerk has got too old to perform his duties. He takes his chances when he enters the service. It is a strange objection to urge that a man ought to be removed at the end of four years for no cause, and not at the end of twenty for cause."

Let Mr. Wanamaker try again, and ask a harder one.

In Birmingham (Alabama) on Tuesday week, Dr. J. D. S. Davis and Dr. W. Locke Chew had a dispute over the proper treatment of kidney diseases at a meeting of the local Medical Society. After the adjournment it was renewed in the street, and Dr. Davis found it necessary to kill Dr. Chew, which he did with his pistol. Now, this is one of the puzzling cases which we so often have to ask Southern Sociologists to explain. Here are two members of a learned profession, both, we are told, "highly successful practitioners," who dispute as medical men over a professional question—a thing which happens in all countries; but when they lose their tempers—also a common occurrence among doctors—they settle the dispute after the fashion of "medicine men." Why is this? One would expect a pair of doctors who try to murder each other about the way to treat "kidney troubles," to treat them as a medicine man or magician would treat them—by giving the patients a draught made by stewing a fillet of snake, a newt's eye, a frog's toe, a bat's wool, a dog's tongue, and a lizard's leg all together in sow's milk, to be taken hot at bedtime, in the moon's last quarter. But we have not the slightest doubt that every member of the Birmingham Medical Society treats kidney disease after the most approved modern methods, and is, in all respects, except this homicidal tendency, a civilized modern man. What does it mean? Nor is this the only case of the kind. We can recall a most desperate medical fight, in the hospital at New Orleans, some years ago, between the resident surgeons and an outside practitioner over a man afflicted with an aneurism of the subclavian artery. The case was a very interesting one, and the hospital surgeons wanted to keep it, but the outside practitioner induced the patient to leave the hospital and come to him (the outsider) for treatment. When the wagon came to remove him, the resident surgeons determined not to surrender him without a struggle, and opened a sharp pistol fire on the interloper, who returned it vigorously, the balls whistling round the aneurism in a way that nearly frightened the poor invalid to death. One if not more of the belligerents was killed, and the horse ran away, frightened by the firing; but the outsider finally, as we remember the affair, got his aneurism. The scene was worthy of Morocco or Zululand, but the combatants were doubtless all well-educated doctors. Why do such men at the South keep murder in their minds as a possible or conceivable mode of settling small quarrels? We do not know of a more interesting sociological inquiry.

Mr. Gladstone's speech before the Liberal Federation at Manchester on December 3 was mainly important as producing the Liberal programme in full for the coming session of Parliament. Home Rule, the disestablishment of the Church in Wales, free education, are the three leading points in it. About Home Rule he did not enter into details, and says he will not do so as long as he is out of power, unless the Tories accept the principle. As long as they declare they will never agree to Home Rule at all, it would be useless, he says, to furnish them with a plan of Home Rule, as they would simply tear it to pieces. In this reticence all the other party leaders support him. John Morley goes beyond all the others in advocating a very large treatment of social questions. English politics during the next year promise to be increasingly lively, owing to the fact that the dissolution of Parliament is getting very near. Usage prescribes it in 1891, and the law will compel it a year later. The probabilities are that the Ministry will not defer it longer than 1891, so that 1890 will be a year of preparation and fearful looking for judgment.

A very curious illustration of the troubles arising out of the connection between Church and State in England has just occurred in the diocese of Rochester. A Mrs. Swayne presented herself for the Communion in the parish of a minister named Benson, who refused to admit her to it, on the ground that she was guilty of schism in having taken a sitting in a Methodist church. Being asked whether he considered schism to be the equivalent of "open and notorious evil living," he said he did. Mrs. Swayne appealed to the Bishop, who followed the legal course of procedure by appointing a commission to report the facts. The commission heard both sides and found there was no dispute about the facts. All attempts at compromise failed, Mrs. Swayne's offence all the while growing more hideous in Mr. Benson's eyes. The case was then sent in due course to the Court of Arches, where he was ordered to admit Mrs. Swayne to the Communion. Still refusing, he was suspended from his parish for one year, and a curate sent to take his place. He locked the church door against the curate and continued his ministrations. He will now go to jail for contumacy. In spite of Mr. Benson's violence, he has, however, a great many apologists among those who think it foul scorn that a civil judge should have power to mandamus a clergyman into administering the Communion. But he is also disobeying his bishop, who likewise ordered him to admit Mrs. Swayne to the Communion, and he has repudiated the bishop.

If Emin Pasha were to die now before leaving African soil, at the termination of his long labors and privations, it would be one of the most tragic incidents in the history of exploration. It would be the more tragic because Stanley's last letter, describing his final start for the coast, intimates with but little reservation that Emin embarrassed him greatly by his vacillation and by his blind confidence in a lot of very rascally followers. They joined him on the Lake Nyanza, with a great quantity of household "rubbish" which his men were nearly worn out with carrying up to the plateau from the steamer, and then began to conspire and mutiny, and had to be cowed into good order by flogging and threats of execution. In dealing with all these troubles, Emin appears to have given Stanley very little support, owing to his difficulty in making up his mind to come away. He was probably a good deal broken by sickness and prolonged anxiety, so that it is for the sake of his own fame, if for no other reason, extremely desirable that he should reach home, and recover his health, and tell his story in his right mind. The expedition by which he has been rescued is perhaps the most extraordinary one of its kind on record, and puts Stanley in the foremost rank of leaders of men—a born commander. It must always be a great feather in the cap of the proprietor of the *Herald* that he should have been the first to recognize the man's qualities and give him the opportunity to show the stuff that was in him. But for him Stanley might have remained a chronicler of "Papal banks" and other blatherskite sensations, which constitute so much of the home "news."

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SIGNS OF PROGRESS.

SECRETARY WINDOM makes at the close of his annual report a notable and valuable tribute to the efficacy of the civil-service-reform regulations as applied in the Treasury Department. Having, as he says, been at the head of the Department both before and since the adoption of the Civil-Service Law, he is able to judge by comparison of the two systems, and he leaves no chance for doubt as to his opinion. "I have no hesitation," he says, "in pronouncing the present condition of affairs as preferable in all respects," adding:

"Under the old plan, appointments were usually made to please some one under political or other obligations to the appointee, and the question of fitness was not always the controlling one. The temptation to make removals only to provide places for others was always present and constantly being urged by strong influences, and this restless and feverish condition of departmental life did much to distract and disturb the even current of routine work. Under instrumentalities which are now used to secure selections for clerical places, the Department has some assurance of mental capacity, and also of moral worth: the character of the candidates is ascertained before examination. The manifold duties of the Department require the closest application on the part of the Secretary and his assistants; and the freedom from importunity now enjoyed for appointments to places that are within the classified service, and the saving of valuable time heretofore devoted to the distribution of minor patronage, are of very great advantage, and enable these officers to devote more thought to the important questions of administration constantly arising. The clerks received from the Civil-Service Commission usually adapt themselves readily to the duties they are called upon to perform, and rank among the most efficient in the Department."

Not the least striking part of that testimony is the direct statement, near the close, that it is through the "saving of valuable time heretofore devoted to the distribution of minor patronage" that the Civil-Service Law "enables the Secretary and his assistants to devote more thought to the important questions of administration which are constantly arising." In other words, were it not for the law, the officers of the most important branch of the Government would be able to devote only a part of their time and thought to the public business. In the same manner the Secretary's testimony to the superior moral and clerical capacities of appointees under the civil-service rules over those secured through political influence, is confession that the routine business of the Department could be carried on only in a most unsatisfactory manner were the old condition of affairs to be restored. Why should it be necessary to point out in an official report, and to call attention to them as noteworthy, such obvious facts as these? Simply because professional politicians whose position in politics depends entirely upon the number of offices whose distribution they are able to control, go about constantly deriding the Civil-Service Law as a humbug, and declaring on every occasion that its examinations are, in the language of Senator Farwell, confined to questions about "geometry, the history of ancient Rome, and the principles of evolution." Mr. Windom's testimony is of incalculable value in refuting these tiresome falsehoods, especially when it is addressed to Congress and is printed in all the newspapers of the country, including those which have for years been uttering the stale inventions of the Farwell style of statesmen.

It is an instructive and encouraging fact that many of the most earnest advocates of civil-service reform to-day are converts who have been convinced of its efficacy by being called upon to administer offices in one way or another under its jurisdiction. A notable convert of this kind was Gen. Sickles, appointed by Gov. Hill to the Chairmanship of the Civil-Service Commission of this State. A very short acquaintance with the details of the law which he was called upon to execute, convinced him of both its wisdom and desirability, and, within a few months after his entrance upon office, we were treated to the extremely edifying spectacle of seeing him threatening to hit over the head with his crutch a mayor of one of our smaller interior cities, who in the General's presence denounced the law as a humbug, and expressed his determination to evade it in all possible ways.

A scarcely less notable convert has been made in Milwaukee within the past few weeks. Mr. Newell, who had served in the campaign of last year as Secretary of the Wisconsin Republican State Committee, was appointed Postmaster as a reward for his political services. Soon after entering upon his duties, he was asked to appoint a certain man to one of the unclassified positions in the Post-office. The applicant was endorsed by several prominent Republicans, and strong party pressure was exerted in his favor. When Mr. Newell looked into the man's record, he found, to quote his own words, that "he had been hanging about town for a number of years doing nothing, and had even spent some of his time in the penitentiary." He went to the applicant's Republican backers and asked them why they did not employ the man in their private business. Their indignation at this was unbounded, and no wonder. They had been used to that kind of question from reformers and Mugwumps, and had laughed at it as "theoretical," and as of no importance save as a revelation that its propounders had no knowledge of "practical politics"; but when it came to them from the Secretary of their own Campaign Committee, that was quite another matter, especially as it could not be answered in any except the most unsatisfactory manner. As for the Postmaster, this and other similar incidents made him a civil-service reformer on the spot, and he caused public announcement of the fact to be made as follows:

"I am getting tired of hearing people talk to me about political influence in order to induce me to retain an employee or to have some one else appointed. The Government has seen fit to appoint me Postmaster, and in return the Government is justified in expecting from me the very best service. For this purpose I expect and intend to have only the very best quality of help. Capability and fitness, nothing else, are to determine the tenure and the appointment of every employee as long as I am here. All other considerations are out of place. This or that person may be needy or may have the backing of public men. I shall not be guided by any consideration of that kind."

This is certain to be the result in every case in which an intelligent and conscientious man is put into an administrative office. Even if he have the double conscience necessary to enable him to apply one kind of morality to his private business and another kind to his public office, his comfort as a business man, his desire for the orderly and intelligent conduct of the service under his control, will lead him to revolt against the old system of appointment by "influence" and "pulls." Sentiment in this direction is growing all the time, and growing much more rapidly than most observers suspect. Even Senator Farwell shows signs of being conscious of this fact, for his determination to take the field against the Civil-Service Law is weakened. He remarked with much humor recently that he had not read the annual report of the Civil-Service Commission, but expected to "have a good time" when he did read it, for really "this civil-service system is a fraud of the worst kind, a cheat, a delusion, a humbug; in fact, you cannot say anything too mean of it." And then as evidence that so far as he was personally concerned there was nothing to be done against it which was too mean for him to undertake, Mr. Farwell said that he did not know that he should introduce a bill to repeal the law, as he had at first proposed, because "we can do just as well by refusing to appropriate the funds on which it depends. It was beaten that way before, and we are going to do our best to beat it that way once more again." It was done that way once in Gen. Grant's time, but it did not kill the reform. We venture to predict that the experiment will not be repeated this year, and that the only result of Mr. Farwell's crusade will be the revelation which he has made of his preference for sneaking over open methods of warfare. He has shown that there is sentiment enough in favor of the law to make an open attempt to repeal it futile.

DEPOSITS OF PUBLIC MONEY IN BANKS.

THE statute under which the Treasury makes deposits in national banks received such curious treatment in last week's official documents that it is worth while to reprint the text of the law. It is to be found in section 45 of the National Currency Act, approved June 3, 1864, (section 5133, U. S. Revised Statutes), and reads as follows:

"All associations under this act, when designated for that purpose by the Secretary of the Treasury, shall be depositaries of public money, except receipts from customs, under such regulations as may be prescribed by the Secretary; and they may also be employed as financial agents of the Government; and they shall perform all such reasonable duties, as depositaries of public moneys and financial agents of the Government, as may be required of them.

"And the Secretary of the Treasury shall require of the associations thus designated satisfactory security, by the deposit of United States bonds and otherwise, for the safe-keeping and prompt payment of the public money deposited with them, and for the faithful performance of their duties as financial agents of the Government."

Here are plain powers given to the Secretary, and for twenty-five years these powers have been used, sometimes less and sometimes more freely, but always on the judg-

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ment and responsibility of the Secretary of the day. It is of deposits of public money made under this law that President Harrison says: "The loaning of public funds to the banks without interest, upon the security of Government bonds, I regard as an unauthorized and dangerous expedient." In what sense can these deposits, or, as the President calls them, loans, be said to be unauthorized, since the law has for twenty-five years expressly permitted them, and has not been a dead letter? As for their being dangerous, we believe there has never been any loss caused by them. From the first until now, while some people may have felt or expressed fears about them, there has been no danger.

The remarks of the President may perhaps be passed over lightly, as the business belongs more particularly to the Secretary of the Treasury. What Mr. Windom says on the subject must be taken very strictly; it is his business to be both right and accurate. His utterances, so far as their reflections upon his predecessor in office are concerned, have already received our attention; but they also merit notice for the manner in which they treat the law. The statute expressly authorizes the Secretary to deposit public money, except receipts from customs, in national banks; and the Secretary is left to decide for himself how large such deposits shall be. What is the sense of saying, as Mr. Windom does, that the policy of making deposits larger than he approves is "contrary to the spirit of the act of August 6, 1846, which contemplates a Sub-Treasury independent of the banks"? A criticism of this kind ignores the act of June 3, 1864, ignores the financial history of twenty-five years, and recalls the sleep of Rip Van Winkle. From a man who has been United States Senator, and is now Secretary of the Treasury for the second time, it is simply astonishing.

Further, Mr. Windom finds that the law (for it is the law which must bear his criticisms) "involves temptation to favoritism of the most objectionable character." All power involves temptation; power conferred by statute involves temptation to wrong-doing in the field covered by the statute. But this is familiar to every one, and yet under our system the powers of an office are conferred by statute, and those powers must be pretty large in the case of a Secretary of the Treasury. If Mr. Windom were now as severe with himself as he is with the Congress of 1864, or if he were as scrupulous about the collection of public money, from customs let us say, as he professes to be about its custody, his strictures would have greater weight; he might even make us forget the exaggeration and violence of tone which characterize them.

Mr. Windom further blames the law for giving the "free use" of the Government's money to people who already draw interest on Government bonds. But the law leaves the Secretary to decide whether he shall or shall not exact interest on his deposits in national banks; the deposits are to be made "under such regulations as may be prescribed by the Secretary." It has always been open to Mr. Windom to demand interest on Treasury deposits, but he has not seen fit to do so, though he has been nine months in office. Surely such a policy must have been suggested to him, if it did not occur to his own mind; it was so obvious a step for him to take, particularly as he was buying bonds for cancellation, and wished to buy in larger amounts. Moreover, the great ease of money which lasted until the middle of August, gave him ample and appropriate opportunity to demand interest.

The statute which so strangely excites Mr. Windom is likely, we imagine, to remain in force. It has been the means of saving the business of the country from absolute confusion, and will, very likely, be called upon to perform the same function again, if not in Mr. Windom's time, then in the time of some future Secretary of the Treasury. The deposits made under the statute are, of course, only an expedient; at the present moment, Mr. Windom's policy of calling them in by small instalments on ample notice is bringing large amounts of bonds to him for sale, and we rejoice that this success follows his recent circular, because, when he has a surplus to dispose of, it is better to buy bonds with it than to keep it on deposit with or without interest. But this is not the whole of the matter. Mr. Windom, we will suppose, wished a week ago to reduce his bank deposits from $47,000,000, at which they then stood, by easy stages to the amount which he considers really useful in the conduct of public business. For convenience we will call this amount $20,000,000. If, therefore, instead of $3,407,000 of bonds sold to him this past week by banks holding Treasury deposits, the whole mass of what he considers redundant deposits, say $27,000,000, had been settled by sale to him of the bonds deposited as security, his circular would have met with unexampled success, and he would now once more be called upon to face the standing difficulty of our financial system, the hoarding of lawful money by the Treasury of the United States. And to meet this difficulty, he will find no certain resource but this law of 1864 which so exasperates him.

MR. WANAMAKER ON SUBSIDIES.

On October 21, 1884, Mr. John Wanamaker, merchant, of Philadelphia, appeared before the Commission appointed to promote trade with South America, and testified: "My business is not such as would make me intelligent on this subject." That part of the annual report of the Hon. John Wanamaker, Postmaster-General of the United States, which deals with "this subject" shows that the Philadelphia merchant told the truth. It is full of misstatements, and, while aiming to set forth the views of the subsidy-seekers, is not "intelligent" enough to do even that without muddling.

"There exists," says the Postmaster-General, "a widespread demand for prompt, regular, efficient, and speedy mail service . . . especially to our Central American, Mexican, and South American neighbors, and to the trans-Pacific countries." Where does it exist, and what is the evidence that it exists at all? Mr. Wanamaker does not say, because he cannot; he has taken the word of the subsidy-men for it. He has not read the testimony of the merchants engaged in the South American trade; they ask for lower freights, in some cases, but are satisfied with the mail facilities. For example, Mr. M. L. Bandel of Baltimore, a South American shipper, told the Commission that "the means for mail communication were ample, and communication was now established by telegraph. They could cable by way of Galveston or Europe." The view of this merchant was strikingly confirmed within a year. The steamship lines tried to boycott Postmaster-General Vilas into submission, the next summer, by refusing to take the mails on the Government's terms. He was able to get the work done by tramp steamers and sailing vessels, with, as he reported, very slight delays. Then the steamer-owners were glad to eat humble pie and take the mails again. If Mr. Wanamaker maintains that more frequent mails are a necessity, there are steamers in plenty engaged in the South American trade that would gladly take mails, and at less rates than the complaining American lines. What he really means is, of course, that there is a "widespread demand" for a subsidy.

The Postmaster-General speaks enthusiastically of "the tremendous increase of trade with foreign nations that follows the establishment of American steamship lines between this and other countries." The only fact he refers to in support of this statement is not a fact: there is no contract, as he supposes, between Australia and an American steamship line. Of course, he, in common with all the other short-memoried subsidy advocates, knows nothing about past experiments. He never heard of the $4,583,333 paid by the United States into the treasury of the Pacific Mail Steamship Company between 1867 and 1877. Who ever heard of any "tremendous increase of trade" resulting from that—except the trade of lobbyists and dishonest Congressmen? He knows nothing of the Garrison subsidy of $150,000 a year for ten years, on the Brazil line, and the positive injury to trade caused by that monopoly. Mr. E. A. Hopkins of Buenos Ayres, himself a believer in subsidies, says about this line: "It was a monopoly. . . . The prices of freight and passage were almost prohibitory to outsiders, and the whole management was an outrage on the public." Of the Roach subsidized line Mr. Eugene Levering, the prominent coffee-merchant of Baltimore, said, "It was a failure. Subsidy led to extravagance. . . . Subsidized steamers would not care whether they obtained freight or not." Mr. Wanamaker and the subsidy-men forget all these facts. Neither they nor any honest man will dare to defend the past of subsidies in this country; it is always the coming subsidy that is going to be pure and of good report.

When the Postmaster-General comes to name actual amounts for subsidies, he blunders badly, so the subsidy-hunters will say: The idea of thinking it may be "advisable" to have the subsidies "limited at least to the profits accruing" from the foreign mails! Those profits, according to the report, even

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when a point is stretched and "no allowance for inland carriage" is made, would not be enough to double the present rates of pay to our wronged ship-owners. Did you not understand, Mr. Wanamaker, that they want ten or twenty times the present rates? One of them once presented "certain figures," as he called them, to Congress, calling for "not over $2,500,000 a year for ten years." The only doubt was about the period of time: "We differed upon that point, and the period was variously fixed at ten, fifteen, and twenty years." And now comes this Philadelphia shop-keeper, with his retail-trade ideas, and talks about limiting the subsidies to "the profits"!

LAW VERSUS MORAL SUASION.

THREE States of the Union have attempted to eradicate drunkenness by passing laws prohibiting the sale of intoxicating liquor, and have tried the experiment in such a way as to challenge the attention of the whole country—Maine, Kansas, and Iowa. Each of the three States confesses the failure of the experiment, and admits that in the chief centres of population liquor is sold and drunkenness is as prevalent as ever.

Maine was the first commonwealth to make the trial, having had a prohibitory law for a generation. Neal Dow, "the father of prohibition," a resident of Portland, the chief city of the State, recently confessed that "the grog-shops keep on pretty much as they did twenty years ago." In Bangor, another of the large cities, it is admitted by the *Whig*, a newspaper which believes in prohibition, that "the saloon runs right along in bold defiance of the laws of the State." The shocking prevalence of drunkenness in these Maine cities is shown by the following account in the Portland *Advertiser* of a recent Fourth of July: "Enough liquor was on sale to make several hundred men drunk. In some parts of the city the scenes were disgraceful. Drunken men were laid up on the sidewalks and doorsteps in all directions. In Deering's Oaks many of the benches were occupied by sleeping sots. Around the Custom-house it is estimated that fifty men were seen drunk during the night and day. It was even worse about Gorham's Corner and the adjacent parts of the city. The police made arrests until the station was full and could accommodate no more."

Kansas adopted a prohibition amendment to the Constitution in 1880. Cassius G. Foster settled in Kansas thirty years ago as a young lawyer, and for fifteen years past has been United States District Judge for the State, holding a commission signed by President Grant. He has recently written an open letter declaring himself in favor of a resubmission to the people of the amendment, for the reason that it has been a failure as a temperance measure. For awhile, he says, the open saloon disappeared, giving way to the "joint" and the "restaurant." But "of late, the law falling into disrepute, the disguise has grown thinner and thinner. In many places the saloons are permitted to run on payment of a monthly stipend, denominated fines or forfeiture." As for the claim that crime has been diminished, Judge Foster declares that "the criminal courts and jails are still open and full of business, and there is no decrease in the demand for police service." He institutes a comparison between Kansas with prohibition and Nebraska with high license, which shows that the proportion of criminals to population is far less in the latter State, and that the disparity is increasing.

Iowa gave a large majority for a constitutional amendment in 1882, and, upon the annulment of that action by the Supreme Court on technical grounds, elected in 1884 a Legislature which enacted a prohibitory law. For five years, therefore, Iowa has had prohibition on the statute-book, and yet "for five years," confesses the *State Register*, the leading newspaper of the commonwealth, "prohibition has proved a failure in a dozen or more counties of Iowa," these dozen or more counties being those which contain the chief cities, where temperance measures are most needed. The Burlington *Hawkeye*, published in one of these cities, recently declared that "Burlington has its one hundred or more saloons running in defiance of the law." Davenport, another of these cities, has three breweries, three malt-houses, several wholesale liquor-stores, and a host of saloons. Of course, in all of these cities there is a great amount of drunkenness.

Why is it that drunkenness is so prevalent in States which have laws forbidding the sale of liquors? It is largely because the foes of intemperance have depended upon law to cure the evil, and have abandoned efforts to prevent men from becoming drunkards by moral suasion. Valuable testimony upon this point is furnished by a recent address of Capt. I. H. McDonald, President of the Portland Temperance Reform Club. He began by confessing the failure of the attempt to abolish drunkenness by law. "For more than thirty years," he said, "we have heard the booming of guns of every calibre in the war against the rum traffic, and to what purpose? It still exists and thrives in a State where it is prohibited. Why?" he asked, and thus answered his own question: "Simply because law is not a reformatory method to be used in a work of moral reform." In the same line he said:

> "We wish that the state of things as to the temperance cause in our city and State was different, that it could be said of our city that drunkenness was a thing of the past, and that the banner of temperance could be seen floating from every mansion and from every cot. But before such a state of things exists (if it ever does) there must be a mighty revolution in the minds of men, even in this prohibitory State. I believe that every good citizen today condemns drunkenness, but every good citizen does not make an effort to use his influence against this great evil to which so many of our people are addicted. The people of Maine have relied too much upon 'law' to do this great work of reform, which it will never accomplish, and the sooner they come to that conclusion, and turn their minds and their efforts in the right direction, the sooner the great work will be accomplished. It would seem that after more than thirty years of experience most men must be convinced that law neither reforms the drunkard, restrains intemperance, nor diminishes the rum traffic to any great extent in our cities."

A similar confession comes from Iowa. "It is idle to deny," says the *Register*, "that a great many boys are learning to drink, that a great many men are drinking who would be far better off, and their families would be far happier, if they would let liquor entirely alone. These are facts and stubborn ones, too. It will not do to ignore them, for they have a very disagreeable and painful way of forcing attention to themselves." Why is there such a state of things in a State where the law says that there shall be no opportunity for a man to drink? The reason, according to the *Register*, is that "our good friends, the preachers, have looked to the law to make and keep men sober, and have expected that would do the work which to a greater or less extent must be done in every community by personal effort." It proceeds to show how the work of moral suasion has been almost entirely neglected:

> "When was there a temperance meeting held in Des Moines to plead with men to sign the pledge and leave their drinking ways? When have our honored clergy held Gospel temperance meetings, to bring all the power of Christian influences to bear upon the drink habit? When did a blue-ribbon club or any other organization start out its members to find the old soaks and induce them to sign the pledge and become men again? Was any such personal work done in the last year or the year before that? All of these good people, headed by the ministers, have been relying upon the law to do the work which the law never can do. They have preached sermons and held public meetings to demand that the law be enforced, but all this time there were poor fellows sinking lower and lower, and there were young men fastening the chains of appetite about their necks, and hardly a word of public protest or private entreaty has been heard."

Francis Murphy, who comes as near as anybody to being the John B. Gough of his generation, and who has a great contempt for the idea of legislating soberness into men, once happily said that it has looked of late years as though the people of Iowa were trying to change the Lord's Prayer so as to make it read, "Our Father which art in the Legislature." The people of Maine and Kansas have shared the same delusion that omnipotence rested with a body of law-makers, and that, after the human race had suffered from intemperance for thousands of years, the evil could be cured summarily by a majority vote in the State capitol. Experience was the only schoolmaster who could convince them of their error. Happily there are now abundant signs that the lesson has been pretty generally mastered, and that, in Judge Foster's words, "morality by act of the Legislature, backed up by a Draconian code, will not be accepted by a free people as the sincere, pure article." We may now hope to see moral suasion regain its proper authority as an agency of temperance reform.

JEFFERSON DAVIS.

MR. JEFFERSON DAVIS'S death may properly be said to close the epoch of the Civil War. Not that there are no other prominent survivors of the Confederacy, for they are found everywhere, in public and in private stations. But these have put themselves more or less completely in harmony with the new order of things. They have applied for and received the benefit of the amnesty laws, have renewed their allegiance to the national Government, and are conspicuous in its Legislature and Administration. They see and frankly recognize the fact that the New South is richer, more vigorous, more hopeful, than the Old South ever could have been. They have a regenerated national patriotism, and, in their

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growing satisfaction in the almost unrivalled power of the United States among the nations of the earth, their feeling towards the Confederacy has passed into a sentiment, like the lost illusions of immature youth, poetic and tinged with regret, but which their ripened judgment pronounces well exchanged for an actual result full of present dignity and of future hope, abreast with all that marks the true progress of Christendom and of civilization.

Mr. Davis, partly from the peculiarity of his official station, and partly from his personal traits of character, could not share these changes with his old associates. The subtle tendency of the human mind to personify a cause, and to carry vicarious rewards and punishments to an extreme, forced upon him a representative position quite apart from that of any other civil or military officer of the Confederacy. In this view they were its prominent advocates or supporters; he, in a sense, was the Lost Cause itself. He could not turn from the past and find active occupation in the newly developed energies of the present. The preëminent position he had held condemned him to an inaction in which there was room only for brooding over the past, and which separated him from the influences of an active environment that insensibly moulded other men into new forms of thought and energy. Thus chained to a dead past, the separation between him and his own time grew wider and wider. His antagonism to the victorious cause grew more intense, if possible, because personal failure and the ruin of all his hopes and aspirations were inseparably connected with the overthrow of the Confederacy. His pride made him think it a sacred duty to maintain an inflexible assertion of the righteousness of the Rebellion and of the unjustifiable tyranny of suppressing it. He could not ask for amnesty, he could not accept a pardon, he could not acknowledge the lawfulness of the national Government.

In the nature of the case much of this was the logical outcome of his representative position, and will account for the more unhappy parts of his later experience. What can be more wretched to an active and able mind than to be condemned to remain, like a stranded vessel, a mark only of the height to which the mad surges of the storm had swept, and of the distance to which the peaceful tide has retreated from the hopeless wreck? Yet Mr. Davis's bitterness and irreconcilability were in part the result of temperament and education. His surroundings had, from his youth, tended to develop the self-confidence and dictatorial disposition which were natural to him. His elegant and finely cut features bespoke a highly nervous organization, and when an acknowledged intellectual leadership had fully developed his habit of command, it became a great hardship for him to brook opposition or to yield his will. His faith in his own mental processes was supreme, and it was almost impossible for him to see either reason or good moral purpose in those who opposed him. His cherished ideas became a sort of cult to him when the defeat of the Rebellion had removed them from the sphere of practical action; and in his enforced idleness he lived in retrospect, revolving his theories over and over, demonstrating to his own bitter satisfaction that the world had all gone wrong and illogically in the events which had followed the Confederate surrender.

His domicile was Mississippi, for his family had migrated from Kentucky early in the Southwestward movement of population which followed the Louisiana purchase, and when he was a mere infant. After a fair academic preparation he was appointed to a West Point cadetship, and was graduated from the Military Academy in 1828 at the age of twenty. He served seven years in the army; long enough to fix his habits and character, and to give a tinge of military peremptoriness to his whole career. He constantly recurred with pride to the fact that he was educated as a soldier, and was not unwilling to have it understood that he cherished military habits of thought and kept himself abreast with the progress of military theories.

About the time of his marriage to a daughter of Zachary Taylor, he left the army to assume the mixed career of cotton-planter and public man, which his tastes and his connections opened to him. In 1845 he entered Congress and soon acquired a national reputation. He threw himself ardently into the advocacy of the extremest views of the slaveholding class. He saw that slavery was doomed from the moment its spread was forbidden, and earnestly advocated the annexation of Texas as a means of obtaining room for its growth. The Mexican war, which resulted, called him to arms, for his education as a soldier and his actual eminence as an advocate of annexation made this the only consistent or logical course for him. As Colonel of the First Mississippi Volunteers he served with credit at Monterey and Buena Vista, and the wound which he received in the latter engagement quickened the attachment of the Southern people to him, and made easy his advance to political leadership in his own State. The radical character of the theories of State rights he had already adopted was shown by his refusal of President Polk's promotion to the rank of Brigadier-General of Volunteers, on the avowed ground that the States alone had the right to give such honors to the volunteers in the national service. It needs no argument to prove that this apparent self-sacrifice to a principle would endear him to Southern radicals, and pave the way to higher civic honors.

From his return from Mexico to the outbreak of the civil war he was in the Senate of the United States except during the Administration of Franklin Pierce (1853-1857), when he was Secretary of War. For this position he was well fitted, and his administration of the office was signalized by important improvements in the regulations, the discipline, the drill, and the organization of the army. But it was also signalized by so marked a policy of favoritism towards Southern officers that what at the time was regarded as his personal friendships and prejudices must now be interpreted as a deliberate purpose to make a Southern sectional devotion predominant in the army over devotion to the national flag. He, undoubtedly meant that the army should be an honor to the country so long as Southern statesmen controlled the country's destinies, but that the dominant sentiment in its posts and mess-rooms should be such that it would be useless if called upon to put down nullification or secession. His policy was continued by Buchanan's Administration, and the immediate result was seen in 1861, when Gen. Twiggs's surrender of the troops in Texas was followed in quick succession by the transfer of the forts, arsenals, and posts in the Southern States to the Confederate civil authorities, and the commissioning of the officers in charge in the Confederate Army. That Sumter was not surrendered in like manner was not for lack of a Southern officer in command, but because the loyalty of Maj. Anderson was of a different temper from that of the rest, and postponed the Southern occupation till the cannon of Beauregard's attacking batteries had awakened a resistless outburst of Northern patriotism.

It is not necessary to assume that the Southern Democrats of whom Mr. Davis became the leader, had no attachment to the Union. Our increasing knowledge of their motives and purposes points to a different conclusion. Their temperament and mental habits made them, even more than Northern men, susceptible to the glory of a great and mighty nation and to the pride of taking high rank among the Powers of the earth. Their theories of States' rights had never stood in the way of national aggrandizement when it did not threaten Southern supremacy at home. The Florida annexation, the Louisiana purchase, and the absorption of Texas and part of Mexico are proof enough of this. We believe the truth to be that the truckling of Northern politicians had blinded them to the depth of national feeling in the Northern States, and had produced a settled conviction that with a manufacturing and trading people pecuniary profit and loss would outweigh all patriotic sentiment. They had schooled themselves to believe that a palpable and imminent danger of disunion would secure constitutional guarantees for the unrestricted spread of slavery. They had convinced themselves of the logical soundness of the Democratic platforms of 1856 and 1860, and thought the force of their arguments would surely be admitted by the North when the alternative would seem to be a quick dissolution of the Union. The very use of such arguments must have weakened the patriotism of those who used them; but it is not necessary to assume that they had destroyed it. The programme was a revolutionary demonstration to force constitutional changes, and they underestimated the danger that, like a military demonstration, it might end in a general engagement. It is now notorious that the leaders of the secession movement succeeded in forcing the passage of secession ordinances only by the most passionate asseverations of their faith that quick submission of the North and reconstruction on the basis of the constitutional guarantees for slavery would promptly follow united action in the South. To the suggestions that it might fail, their hot answer was the old one:

> "But screw your courage to the sticking place,
> And we'll not fail."

The plan was shrewdly arranged. The army officers in important commands were Southern men. The little navy was mostly at the other side of the globe. President Buchanan had committed himself to their doctrine that he had no right to attempt the coercion of a State. Secession was to be in form accomplished, and every Southern fort and arsenal was to be in the hands of the insurrectionists before Mr. Lincoln could be inaugurated. Northern Democratic conventions had adopted strong resolutions about resisting attempts at coercion. By every possible mode of reckoning but one, the game was in their own hands and their bloodless revolution assured. The one thing not taken into account was the passionate uprising of a whole Northern people, scorning their doughface leaders, trampling commercial theories under foot, and throwing lives and fortunes enthusiastically into their country's cause. It was the one unexpected thing that happened, and the bloodless revolutionary reconstruction of a slaveholding nation failed.

It would be going too far to say that in all this preparatory work Mr. Davis had been the guiding spirit. It is, however, quite within bounds to say that he was one of a small knot of men who controlled the policy of the Southern Democrats. Some of more sanguine temperament may have had fewer doubts of a peaceful success of the plot; but there is no room for question that he was heartily in the scheme, and was gradually coming more and more to the front as a leader likely to be intrusted with the execution of the plan when the time should come. He was the man who was summoned to Washington from a distance when the Southern members of Buchanan's Cabinet saw symptoms of failing nerve in the President. He was the man to whom Buchanan submitted the draft of his message, and whose approval was treated as the official endorsement of the revolutionists. He was the Chairman of the Committee of the Southern Senators who sat as a provisional junto in Washington, dictating the steps successively taken by the seceding States.

It has been supposed to be entirely inconsistent with this for him to assert, as he has done, that he retained a love for the Union. We think the view we have taken reconciles such a claim with his sincerity. The success of the plan seemed so assured by the expected help of the President and of the organized power of the Democratic party North, that he looked beyond the insurrectionary demonstration to the resulting amendment of the Constitution as to slavery. Thinking he could ignore the risk of war which seemed to be sufficiently provided against, the rest had a certain resemblance to a Revolution of the Palace, which would not disturb the unity or the general progress of the nation. He put away the thought of real or permanent division as unnecessary, and the show of it which was so dramatically made was only a device of party politics, serious enough to call forth the expected Union-saving panic at the North, but which would leave the whole country united at last under a slaveholding régime that would

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make it more than ever glorious in the eyes of the cotton-planting class.

His first very troublesome doubts seem to have been born when he found Buchanan faltering in the rôle appointed for him. Then, when such Democrats as Black, Holt, and Stanton entered the Cabinet, he saw in their spirit the reflection of a different purpose in the Northern Democracy from that which he had expected. But it was too late to go back, and, with the other revolutionists, he thought it necessary to take a higher tone and affect a courage and a confidence which might still carry their purpose. It was at this time that he began to warn Southern men that they might have a real and fearful struggle on their hands. It is the misfortune and the fate of revolutionary leaders that the passions of their followers outrun them. To smaller intellects the vision of independence was made to appear an unmixed good, and the disunionism which had been preached as a means to a more satisfactory union, became a good in itself to the mobs of thoughtless enthusiasts who tossed their hats and shouted for secession.

We find it impossible to believe that the secession leaders in Congress would have continued their intrigue at Washington during that winter of 1860–'61, had it not seemed to them within the limits of party manipulation which was not to result in actual rebellion and war. They were in confidential relations with the Administration; they did not disguise from the President their plans; even the Republican leaders were so uncertain of popular support that they did not venture to unmask the whole nature of what was passing under their eyes. A President not in sympathy with their ultimate purpose would have arrested and placed accusations of treason against every man of them; but when the rebellion was to be Pickwickian, and the result the embodiment of the Democratic platform in the Constitution, Buchanan and Davis drifted together till the former found that it was "shooting Niagara," when he left the Southern leader to the torrent which no longer could be breasted.

We have no doubt that the discovery by the secession leaders that the Democratic party would not perform its appointed part in the drama was an unwelcome surprise to Davis and his associates, and marked the period when first they seriously faced the question of real rebellion with all its terrible consequences. But they were courageous men, and the die was cast. Their anger at Buchanan's pusillanimity, as they viewed it, helped to reconcile them to desperate measures. The Confederacy was organized, Davis was made its President, war became necessary to consolidate the elements of Southern society, and the bombardment of Sumter was ordered for the purpose of precipitating the conflict. In this final act, Davis's intellect made him hesitate, for he saw now more clearly than most about him the appalling results which must follow. But the revolution was begun, and he must either lead it or let it roll over him.

His administration of the Confederate Government was vigorous, and it is more than doubtful if any of his Southern critics could have done so well with the means at command. There was an outward unanimity in the Southern people, but the fact remained that it was only a minority that had been real secessionists, and an undercurrent of dissatisfaction soon became manifest. No one dared to advocate submission. The pride even of the original Union men shrank from this humiliation. But the hatred of those who had been the authors of the unspeakable evils the country was suffering found other forms of expression, and from first to last the Davis Administration found itself crippled by opposition which professed to keep within constitutional lines.

At the beginning it is probable that Mr. Davis meant to make the office of Commander-in-Chief something more than the nominal one. Had he reached the field of Manassas a few hours earlier, it is likely that he would have assumed the authority of General. He saw no reason why a President of a republic, any more than a Napoleon or a William of Orange, should not unite the active military functions with the executive. But the irritation which immediately followed from his visit to that field showed him the imprudence of a step which he did not repeat. Sidney Johnston never said anything more flattering to his friend than when, after the loss of Fort Donelson, he declared his desire to serve under the President of the Confederacy commanding in person in the field.

The strain upon Mr. Davis's nerves, and the character of the opposition to his Government which developed itself, intensified his less amiable personal traits. He grew more arrogant, made more of his personal likes and dislikes, regarded personal attachment to himself as a stronger reason for appointments, both civil and military. The necessity for using the whole power of the South as a unit hastened the progress towards centralization. The States'-rights doctrine was the most available weapon to fight the anti-slavery movement with, and was used accordingly. But when the success of their arms demanded it and it promised the dazzling glory of success, Southern men were willing to make as firm a consolidation as the circumstances required. The inconsistency of the acts of the Administration with the original doctrines of secession was strongly used against Mr. Davis by such opponents as Gov. Brown of Georgia; but the convenience of the weapon, in this case as in the former, accounts for its use without assuming any belief in its essential truth.

To Mr. Davis must be given the credit for a high, invincible courage that never faltered after he had chosen his part. Even when the resources of the Confederacy were exhausted and its armies destroyed, he would have sought some remote region where the struggle might still be carried on. His responsibilities as a ruler were no more criminal than those of the people he represented, though the world has always recognized the propriety of representation in punishment as in honor. It was as the political leader in the Senate of the United States that his deplorable work was done, far more than in the Executive Mansion at Richmond after the convulsion had begun. In the first, he was educating his people to do what must prove ruinous to a whole generation; in the second, he was executing their will when they were involved in a common catastrophe. This has been instinctively recognized by them, and it is rather an honor to them that they have refused to make him their scapegoat.

It is beyond the scope of a notice such as this to discuss the details of his policy as a ruler. Indeed, the world hardly has the means of doing so, even yet, though time is gradually accumulating the material for it. His conduct, when final ruin came, was not undignified. The history of the world gave him no encouragement to hope that his life would be spared, and that he would become the most signal example of the lenity of popular governments. His natural expectation was that the failure of his cause must involve his execution if captured. Yet every one must admit that his self-command and courage did not fail him. His imprisonment at Fortress Monroe had some irritating incidents—the result more of the ignorant zeal of guards than of the intention of the Government. He showed at times a disposition to exaggerate these things to excite the world's sympathy, but his physical exhaustion was such that fair men will regard those complaints as the results of illness rather than of a petty spirit. As Americans we may all be glad that the magnanimity of the people sanctioned his full release, and that he was himself no discreditable example of American manhood in both the extremes of fortune.

Could he have put the past as completely behind him as the soldiers and statesmen of the Confederacy generally did, and could he have engaged in the physical regeneration of the South as they have done, his advancing age would have been happier, and he would not have been likely to make some of those unlucky utterances which have occasionally renewed the anger of our people. But we are bound to remember that his position was peculiar, and that for reasons we have already given he could not follow the lines other men could easily mark out for themselves. It is matter for satisfaction that the devotion of personal friends secured for him a quiet retreat at Beauvoir in the congenial climate of the Gulf shore, and that in his old age and declining strength no physical want oppressed a mind sufficiently burdened with the consciousness of having been the chief figure in an epoch which proved so tragic to his followers.

THE NEW HARVARD GATEWAY.

CAMBRIDGE, December 5, 1889.

WHEN the procession of alumni and invited guests at the 250th anniversary of Harvard College, one of the greatest gatherings of American notables of modern years, entered the yard, it saw on either side of the road a small post of Quincy granite terminating the plain rail fence which surrounds the yard, and an insignificant cast-iron gate swung back out of the way. This was the western entrance to Harvard College, through which for years the Commencement Day processions, headed by the Boston Lancers, had passed, and it was but little more distinguished than the first rail fence that marked the early clearing in which stood Harvard and Massachusetts Halls. Regret for the poverty of such an approach to the first of American universities may often have been felt by alumni; but no one is known to have remarked upon it till, on the day in question, Mr. Samuel Johnston, of the Class of 1855, was overheard to express himself very emphatically on this point. The event proved that a resolution was taken then and there, for when Mr. Johnston died, a few months later, his will was found to contain a bequest of $10,000 for the erection of a gateway to Harvard College.

It is perfectly safe to say that the news of this bequest was a source of pain rather than pleasure to nearly every Harvard man who heard of it. The University's modern architecture was so largely bad, so out of keeping with the quiet character and good proportion of the Colonial Halls, that the erection of another monstrosity seemed worse than a waste of $10,000, which might have gone towards lighting the Library or some other practical need, especially when the site dedicated to the new structure lay between the two best of the Provincial buildings, with a vista of old church and graveyard beyond, dear to every Harvard memory. The idea of a marble Arc de Triomphe—of bronze lions—of Gothic buttresses—insulting the repose of that spot, seemed very like desecration.

The success of the experiment, which is now so near completion as to make a description of it possible, seems nearly triumphant, in view of the not inconsiderable difficulties confronting the designers; for, leaving out of the question what might have been, the new gateway is a great artistic addition to the College, and a permanent one. That it is so is due to the sound æsthetic judgment of the architects, Messrs. McKim, Mead & White, who looked for their inspiration to the adjoining elder buildings, and aimed from the first to erect a monument which should emphasize their ancient beauty, and not assert its own individuality.

The result can best be described by the passing traveller's impressions. As he comes down North Avenue, he sees opposite the old Unitarian Church two great brick gate-posts, the centre of the design, rising solidly to the dignified height of some twenty feet, and connected by a heavy crossbar of iron, with graceful, curving lines, surmounted by a delicate wrought-iron canopy, adding much to the loftiness of effect. Beneath this crossbar are swung open the great gates of the new era. The gate-posts are about five feet square. Ris-

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ing from a course of warm Conway granite, they are made up of brick carefully selected for the purpose from various Boston brickyards, laid in a symmetrical, though apparently unstudied, pattern, and varying from the over-baked black to the under-baked buff brick; the courses being the alternate "headers" and "stretchers" of the Flemish bond used in the older buildings. The bricks are a trifle irregular in shape; and their blended color, the slight irregularity of their surfaces, and the broad mortar setting give an effect of freedom and distinction quite remarkable. A sunk panel of brick relieves the lower half of the post from stiffness, while the upper half takes a different color from a corresponding panel of Yorkshire sandstone set upon the post, and separated from the lower panel by several courses of brick and a plain piece of sandstone to mark the change in the color-motive. There are four of these panels, and carved upon them are the shields of the State, College, City, and an emblem to the donor and the nation. Of these, the first and the last are the best, the fine old Indian of the Massachusetts shield and the national eagle being carved with great vigor. I pass over the appropriate inscriptions, which are cut in bold Roman capitals. The gate-posts, in which some have detected a resemblance to the famous ones at St. Augustine, are surmounted with caps of Yorkshire stone, terminating each in an acorn-shaped finial, which gives a surprising effect of lightness to such weighty erections.

The gates themselves are magnificent pieces of iron work, probably the finest ever made in this country. They are seven feet broad each, and sixteen feet high, making a most imposing appearance whether open or closed. They are made of hand-forged iron, which, like their brick setting, has a freedom of outline which machine-wrought material would lack; and their slender vertical bars, lifting the eye to the crowning point above them, are relieved from monotony by two central panels of more elaborate work, two converging horizontal panels above, and two massive locks with handles of heavy wrought iron, which are firmly screwed on at about three feet from the ground. All the iron work is painted black, save the gilded dates 1636 and 1889 in the canopy. The initials (A. A. M.), barely discernible, are said to stand for a munificent anonymous donor to the gate fund.

The gate-posts are set back some twenty-five feet from the main street, the entrance to the yard curving gently in between granite curbs, and leaving a large space on the sidewalk. At each side of the gate-posts a brick wall, about ten feet in height, and capped with Yorkshire stone, runs some fifteen feet north and south, terminating in a smaller brick post, three feet square and twelve feet in height, surmounted by a square cap and a huge sphere of the soft yellow stone; the abruptness of the wall's departure being taken away by a scroll-shaped *console* springing from the larger posts. From these smaller posts two other walls project at right angles some fifteen feet westward towards the street, ending in two more of the smaller posts, panelled in relief with brick, like the larger ones. This brings the design out to the old fence-line; the central part of the scheme forming three sides of a rectangle, some fifteen feet by fifty. On the street side of the first wall, close against the string-course of Conway granite, is a low, heavy bench of the same stone, resting on two carved claws; at the opposite side of the way a great elm rises from the corner to droop its limbs over the whole, and furnishes a natural relief to the severity of the wall. The space about it and in front of the seat is to be well turfed. On the rear of the two walls are two niches, sunk in the brick, surmounted by a shell cut in stone. One has a shallow basin of the sandstone, beneath which is a larger basin of granite; into this a small bronze mask will soon emit a fine jet of water. The other niche will have no fountain, but in front of it, set at a little distance from the wall, is another granite bench like the first, making a beautiful resting-place in the summer.

The walls on the left and right as one enters the gates are unbroken, except for two large panels of sandstone, on which are inscribed the first history of the College, number one containing the succinct votes of the old Colonial Court: "By the General Court of Massachusetts Bay: 28 October, 1636, agreed to give 400£ towards a schoale or colledge, whearof 200£ to bee paid the next yeare, & 200£ when the worke is finished, & the next Court to appoint wheare & w^t^ building: 15 November, 1637, The Colledg is ordered to bee at Newetowne: 2 May, 1638, It is ordered, that Newetowne shall henceforward be called Cambrige: 13 March, 1638-9, It is ordered, that the Colledge agreed upon formerly to bee built at Cambridg shalbee called Harvard Colledge." All those early years of endeavor and self-sacrifice are thus summarized in the quaint memoranda of the fathers; but the purpose of the first "schoale" is more clearly gathered from the delightful little quotation from 'New England's First Fruits' on the opposite panel: "After God had carried us safe to New-England, and wee had builded our houses, provided necessaries for our liveli-hood, rear'd convenient places for God's worship, and setled the Civill Government: One of the next things we longed for, and looked after, was to advance Learning and perpetuate it to Posterity; dreading to leave an illiterate Ministery to the Churches, when our present Ministers shall lie in the Dust."

The rest of the design is of the same refinement and simplicity. Two smaller iron gates flank the main one, and lead to paths within; they too are crowned with elaborate canopies and with arabesque glass lanterns. Continuing north or south from these gates, and rising from the string-course of Conway granite, is an iron fence, of the same beautiful detail as the other iron-work, and having its centre strengthened by a very heavy filigreed panel, much higher than the rest. From the end posts on the street there is a return of iron work, terminating in a post, which leaves an open space between it and the opposite hall. These gaps will probably ultimately be filled. The whole construction is now thrown into perspective by six granite posts (or fenders, in the Italian fashion), set across the sidewalk, one opposite each of the smaller brick posts.

This is the new gate of Harvard College. From the day its first bricks were laid it seemed a fitting part of the place—so much so that one barbarian remarked mournfully, "Now, I suppose, we shall never have any decent buildings to take the place of these old ones"; and several Freshmen were convinced that an old building was coming down, not a new one going up. In remarks like these the architects must have found a reward for their striving.

THE EXPEDITION TO AFRICA.

U. S. S. "PENSACOLA," Nov. 1, 1889.

"ALL of which I saw, and part of which I was"—a small part, that is, a very small part. For, while the public prints have been very generous in giving me largely the credit of the expedition, it really belongs elsewhere. In the first place, such an expedition would never have been possible but for the enlightened policy of our navy, in particular of Admiral Walker and Commander Dewey. The latter was charged by the Secretary with the management of all official matters pertaining to the organization and welfare of the expedition, and such success as may be attained must be his. It is thus peculiarly a naval affair, and even the few days so far passed at sea have sufficed to show that the officers of the *Pensacola* are not only glad to interest themselves in the work of the expedition, but also are able, by their willing exertion, to add very materially to its chances of success. Her Commander, Capt. Yates, and his Executive Officer, Commander Hanford, are pure gold, and the expedition is not looking for any traces of base metal in her junior officers.

Thank Heaven, we got off without ostentation. By sailing at an early hour (which we did on the 16th of October), the customary ceremonies attending the departure of a man-of-war were escaped, and our navy saved some expenditure of powder. The little party of scientists aboard, bound for the distant and (to all of the members but one) the untried coast of West Africa, have primarily in view, as is already well known, the observation of the total eclipse of the sun occurring on the 22d of December next. The time of the year was unfavorable for the organization of the expedition in all respects just to my notion; but if there are hostile critics, I have only to remind them that it may be prudent to delay all attacks until the expedition has had the opportunity to do its work. The present organization of the expedition is as follows: In terrestrial physics, Mr. Preston of the Coast and Geodetic Survey; in meteorology, Professor Abbe of the Army Signal Office; in anthropology, Mr. Orr of Clark University; in languages, Mr Chatelain, who already knows Loanda pretty thoroughly from a three years' residence there; in natural history, Mr. Harvey Brown and Mr. Arthur Brown of the U. S. National Museum; in photography, Mr. Carbutt and Mr. Wright; in astronomy, Mr. Davis of Princeton, Mr. Jacoby of Columbia, and Mr. Loomis and Professor Bigelow of the Nautical Almanac Office. The instrumental equipment I may write about later, after it has had an opportunity to accomplish something; enough for now if I say that it is in the main photographic; that all important partial phases of the eclipse are to be registered on large-scale plates, and that I hope to have the opportunity of collecting, in the brief duration of the total eclipse, a great amount of material for the pictorial, spectroscopic, photometric, and polariscopic study of the solar corona.

A northeast gale had been blowing for several days, and even in the harbor of New York a quite respectable sea was running, but it grew much more respectable—and grew to be much more respected—as we got further out. In a few hours the coast faded into a pale, cloud-like horizon line, and then disappeared. Our next sight of mother earth bids fair to be some coaling isle off the sunny coasts of northwest Africa.

Life on board a man-of-war is nothing if not systematic. Every hour has its duty, and that duty is done in its allotted time. This is very advantageous generally; and now and then results in great economy to the navy appropriations, for the routine which must be gone through to obtain any article from the ship's stores consumes so much time that the need for it has not infrequently disappeared long before the thing itself is forthcoming. Among the 450 souls constituting at present the sole population of our world, and which is perhaps

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the most numerous company ever sent out on an American man-of-war, rumors and little excitements spread as rapidly as they do on land, and are even more welcome. One evening, an hour or two after dark, a sudden alarm penetrated the ward-room, "Man overboard!" By the time we reached the deck the startling order from the officer on the bridge, "Man the life-boat!" confirmed the rumor. Rushing to the lee side, I saw a dark body, like the overturned hull of some great craft, rising and falling on the long swell. As the boat lowered, the creaking of the falls was the only audible sound, save the low rush of the black water, as the slow waves lifted the great hull of the *Pensacola*, and fell back in a soft rush of phosphorescent foam. Will the life-boat *never* get ready? The man will drown a dozen times before the little crew can reach him. At last, after what seemed a small eternity, the boat, manned and lighted, dropped into the black, merciless water. No cry had been heard; if the man was drowning, he was silent, he did not call upon his fellows for help. Perhaps in the ship's company some one out of whose life all the sweetness had gone, intentionally dropped overboard to end an existence he valued no longer. Hurry up that boat! Why does not the cockswain shout "Way enough"—he has surely reached the spot where the man went down? Why does he slowly steer his craft around that dark mass? Perhaps the man, too exhausted to shout, is yet clinging to its keel. But the life-boat is returning. The lantern it carries lights up the oarsmen and the whole interior, but no insensible form is seen extended on the thwarts. Silently the boat is brought under the davits and hoisted to its place, and to the question of the officer of the deck, "What is it?" comes the answer, "Weed, sir!" Alas! all of this sympathy has been wasted on a lenticular patch of Gulf-weed, magnified by the dim light into a capsized boat with a man clinging to the keel. "Most lame and impotent conclusion" to a most promising and exciting rumor. We who "go down to the sea in ships and do business on the mighty waters," see things strange and wonderful—not always pathetic.

Perhaps the most industrious member of our party thus far is Prof. Abbe, who began his meteorological observations on board the *Pensacola* promptly at six P. M., October 15, twelve hours before we set sail. A comparison of his instruments with those of the ship's officers has shown a close agreement of the latter with the Signal-Service standards. On the morning of October 22, after a short period of southeasterly winds, with frequent showers and squalls, it was our good fortune to be favored with a remarkable and perhaps unique display of waterspouts. There were low scudding clouds moving towards the northwest, and the waterspouts seemed to form and develop in these clouds. In the morning, from about half-past nine and onward for nearly an hour, there was a succession of well-developed waterspouts forming and reforming to the southwest of us. No less than seven were simultaneously visible, while the total number throughout the entire display was probably between twenty and thirty. At one time, it looked as if our good ship might be overwhelmed by the rapid approach of these angry monsters of the air, the first ones forming at a distance of about four miles from the ship, and coming nearer and nearer until within less than half that distance. Fine drawings of these remarkable air columns are among the records of the expedition, but attempts to photograph them were in the main unsuccessful, owing to the lack of sufficient contrast.

In his report to the Director of the Expedition, on this wonderful display of waterspouts, Prof. Abbe says:

"It has frequently been supposed that the discharge of a cannon will break up a waterspout. On the present occasion it so happened that a six-pounder was ordered to be discharged, so as to clean it out, and this took place in the midst of the display of waterspouts, which were then three or four miles distant. The discharge of the cannon was followed within a few seconds by the breaking up of one of the spouts, but several others remained and others were again formed a few minutes afterwards, so that the breaking up of the one can only be considered as an accidental coincidence; nor is there, to my mind, any conceivable reason why the discharge of a cannon at a long distance from a spout, or even the firing of a cannon ball into a spout, should be considered as likely to have any appreciable influence on the great mass of revolving air. The general discussion of the mechanism of waterspouts has been so well given by Ferrel in his newest work, 'A Popular Treatise on the Winds,' that I need only say that everything observed by us from the deck of the *Pensacola*, on the 22d of October, fully confirmed the views set forth by him."

Prof. Abbe's report, although a provisional one, contains many points, of great and absorbing interest to the student of marine meteorology, upon which I may touch in a subsequent letter. They relate chiefly to the determination of the movements of the air with greater accuracy than is usually attempted at sea, to the anemometer observations taken with great regularity by three instruments of this sort, one of which is lashed to the mizzen royal mast-head, some feet above its lightning-rod, and to his work with a new form of reflecting nephoscope, in performing all of which Prof. Abbe is most indefatigable.

The expedition is just nearing Fayal in the Azores, where we shall be at anchor for a day or two in the little harbor of Horta for coal, after which the course will lie direct towards the Cape de Verdes. St. Paul de Loanda will be reached by the 1st–5th December, in abundant season for the total eclipse on the 22d.

DAVID P. TODD.

Correspondence.

JEFFERSON ON SINECURES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I was recently shown a letter from Thomas Jefferson, written when he was President, that gave such a curious insight into his conception of public office that I asked permission to copy and publish it. The letter needs little comment to add to its interest, nor does it require any extended comparison with modern methods of filling public appointments to show how little or how much public opinion has crowded out the practice of "looking after one's friends"—and relations.

TO JOHN PAGE, ESQ.

WASHINGTON, 3 July, 1806.

MY DEAR FRIEND,

By a letter from Mr. Walker to Mr. Madison I learn that he had visited you lately at Rosewell, and thought that some occupation in the public concerns would not be refused by you. I wish there was anything to offer which might give you amusement, profit and little labor; but our's you know is not a government of any great choice of office. We have reason to consider as very near at hand a vacancy in an office, which indeed could offer you no amusement, little emolument, but also no labor. The death of the present worthy loan officer (Mr. Jones) is considered as inevitably close at hand. This opinion I have from the best medical judge, and the proposing it to you occurs from the information of Mr. Walker's letter. The salary is 1500 D a year, and 150 or 200 D more as commission on paiment of pensions. Stationery is allowed, but neither office hire nor fuel. 1000 D additional are permitted to be divided between two clerks as the principal pleases. Mr. Gallatin says that a residence so near to Richmond as that you could ride there once or twice a week, would be sufficient, and that the office books being deposited with the Richmond bank a little before quarter day, they would make all the paiments without charge, considering as a sufficient emolument the deposit of the public money with them, which would at the same time save you from trouble and risk. The business can be done by one clerk, but there must still be two. However, nearly all the salary is given to the efficient clerk, and a minimum to the one who is merely nominal, or at least, this may be the arrangement, if it is not so at present. There is probably a clerk in the office well skilled in the business, and whom it might be necessary to keep some time. In the meanwhile if one of your sons could come in as secondary, in proportion as he advances in his knolege of the business, he might divide in the salary more and more largely, and finally take the principal place and salary, to the Commissioner of loans himself. The office is a perfect sinecure.

The introduction of one of your sons into the office, besides adding the benefit of the additional thousand dollars to the family, would, by placing him as it were in possession of the office, secure his succeeding to it in that event which you and I ought now to consider as not very remote. I pray that this letter may be considered as strictly confidential to Mrs. Page and yourself, and as soon as you have made up your mind, to be so good as to apprise me of it, because, to the solicitations already received, a flood of others will be added on the death of the incumbent. I confess I look to your decision with the more hope, as it would once more place you within reach of Monticello. I understand from Mr. Gallatin that the circumstance which renders necessary the residence of the officer in the vicinity of Richmond is the occasional transfer of stock, to which his signature is indispensable, and that these transfers being suspended some time before and after quarter day, admits an absence of 3 or 4 weeks at each of these periods. . . .

TH. JEFFERSON.

Having taken the office, Page enjoyed his sinecure undisturbed until June, 1807, when, the Postmaster at Richmond being about to die and the loan-office to be abolished on the payment of the public debt, Jefferson, looking round for something "equally as good" for Page, informed him of the "moribund" situation of the Postmaster and offered him the probable vacancy, in an "entirely confidential letter." On looking into the emoluments of the place, Jefferson found they were "not so much as I had expected, and possibly is not as good as the place you now hold." Whether Page accepted this legacy also, history saith not; but imagine a President consulting the family physician of an office-holder on the prospect of a "perfect sinecure" becoming vacant on the death of the incumbent! This buzzard-like eagerness need not be practised to-day: the office-holder is kicked out. What an advance in methods!

WORTHINGTON C. FORD.

BROOKLYN, December 2, 1889.

POPE AND PRESIDENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have not seen any special notice taken of the facts that at the banquet on occasion of opening the Roman Catholic University at Washington, the President of the United States sat on the *left* of Cardinal Gibbons (who presided), and Cardinal Taschereau on his *right;* and that the health of Leo XIII. was the *first* toast given, and the Government and President of the United States the *second.*

Why the President and the Secretary of State allowed themselves and the Government to be placed in this position is a matter for them to settle. Why their hosts so placed them is another question. If it was through ignorance or inadvertence, it exhibits a great lack of

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savoir faire. If it was done intentionally, it can only mean, first the Papacy and then the country. NATUS.

THE UNIVERSITIES AND THE PROFESSIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* of November 28 you suggest the propriety of allowing a student to take his degree whenever he can pass the needed examination. It is certainly time that all good colleges should adopt some method to protect genuine students against the loss which they now suffer from idle classmates. The evil is, perhaps, greater in academies than in colleges, but it is too great to be calmly endured in both. A rigid division of classes on the basis of merit would enable the brighter and more studious to accomplish the work of an ordinary college course in from one to two years' less time, without any injurious strain whatever. If it should not be deemed advisable to grant degrees for less than four years of college work, then the time gained by such students could be devoted to more work in the branches now pursued, or to the anticipation of professional work.

There are, of course, many preparatory schools where such a division of classes is now made, but there are many more where the best student in the class has no opportunity to cover any more ground than the poorest. The writer has under his care a preparatory class in Greek, which cannot be divided for lack of time. It is his firm belief that about one-third of the class, if taken by themselves from the end of the first month, could accomplish at least one-half more work than the class as a whole will be able to do. It is easy to see that the impetus thus gained would be of immense advantage throughout the college course.

There would be one great disadvantage in allowing the student to shorten the time required for taking his degree. It would furnish a great temptation to do the work superficially in order to gain time; and the brighter the student, the greater would the temptation become. This might be counteracted in a measure by requiring a very high standard of work as a condition of shortening the time.

Whatever it may be, some way should be devised to place an adequate premium upon the qualities which should characterize a real student. Of course it is impossible that the college should adapt itself *perfectly* to the needs of each student as an individual, but the tendency should be in that direction. TEACHER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The article entitled "The Universities and the Professions," which appeared in the last number of the *Nation*, seems to me faulty in this, that it infers that the earlier a boy enters upon his business career, the more likely he is to succeed; or, in other words, that the college graduate is a poor competitor in the race for making money with the man who started in business when he entered college.

As the article referred to seems to discuss the matter from a purely business standpoint, we should put aside comparisons with strictly professional men, such as physicians, lawyers, and clergymen, who are obliged to devote three or four years to the study of their profession in addition to the usual college course, and confine ourselves to men who take the ordinary college course of four years; and in this event it is respectfully contended that it is only a question of time when the alumnus shall outstrip the man who has not gone to college. That is to say, given two boys, eighteen years old and of equal ability, put one at business and send the other to college, and when those boys become men, of say twenty-seven years, the college graduate will be earning more than the other.

When a boy of eighteen enters business, his duties for the first two years of his career consist of running errands, indexing books, and copying letters, after which he may be intrusted with more important matters, and, by the time he has reached the age of twenty-two, he may be earning from nine to twelve hundred dollars a year. The college graduate, starting in business at the age of twenty-two, will master in a year what it has taken the other man four to learn, not only because he is older and determined to work now that his days of pleasure are ended, but also because his mind is trained to study and observation; and hence he can arrive, by short cuts, at conclusions which his less fortunate rival can obtain only by much labor of time and thought. True, the college graduate's salary may not yet be equal to the salary of his competitor, but if this last statement be true, will it be many years before his income will be equal to, and finally greater, than the other's, having, as he has, an intimate knowledge of men and their ways gained in the class-room, a wide circle of friends, and, more important than all, a knowledge of finance, of political economy, of government, of languages, of electricity, and the numerous other sciences which are taught, and well taught, in our great universities of to-day?

Of course there are men who go through college without learning much of anything, but, these being indifferent to any sort of work, would make no better headway at business. Looking back over the list of my acquaintances, and comparing those who went into business directly after leaving school with those who first took a college course, I fail to find a single case in which, other things being equal, the college graduate is not in as good a financial condition to day as the man who went from the school-room to the counting-house.

Yours respectfully,

CHAS. FRANCIS GUMMEY, JR.

PHILADELPHIA, December 3, 1889.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your last week's editorial, under the above title, you speak of the "perturbation in the collegiate world over the decline in the number of students, in proportion to population," and attribute this decline chiefly to "the great delay imposed by a university education on a young man's entrance on life." The "wild race for the dollar"—which, according to Heinrich von Treitschke, is the chief feature of American life—is so hotly contested that great numbers of our young men had rather give up the intellectual culture and the warm friendships of college life than run the least risk of lagging behind in the mad chase. The colleges, you say, have been debating of late the best mode of meeting this demand for an early entrance upon the money-getting arena; and you suggest, as one device for partly solving the difficulty, "letting every man take his degree whenever he could pass the needed examination."

My object in writing this note is to point out to your readers the fact that exactly this plan has always been a marked, perhaps the most marked, feature of the University of Virginia. In fact, the great bulk of the academic students here never take any degree at all, but study for one, two, three, four, or more years just what subjects in just what order they prefer. There being no prescribed curriculum, a student who, for instance, is poorly prepared in Greek, well prepared in mathematics, and excellently prepared in Latin, may enter the junior class in Greek, the intermediate in mathematics, and the senior in Latin. If so minded, a student may even combine academic studies with professional, taking simultaneously, for example, history and medicine, or chemistry and law. Degrees, both professional and academic, may be obtained at the end of any year, whether it be the first or the tenth of the student's course, in which the necessary examinations are passed; and, as mentioned above, many students never attempt to take a degree, but are satisfied with the diplomas of graduation in any particular subjects on which they pass the examinations.

Now, while objections may doubtless be raised to this system, it has the immense merit of flexibility and adaptability both to the various mental capacity and preparation of various individuals, and to the equally various contents of their pocket-books. The University of Virginia, alone among the leading institutions of learning in America, holds out great inducements to that large class of young men who, being unable or unwilling, for pecuniary or other reasons, to go through with the ordinary prescribed curriculum of four years, would nevertheless be delighted at the opportunity of spending a year or two at college in the prosecution of a few favorite branches of study. The importance of even one year of college life to a young man can hardly be estimated. Not only does he have the opportunity to pursue his favorite studies for that period, but he has the immense advantage of coming into contact and forming friendships with more of those young men who are destined to be leading lawyers, physicians, preachers, teachers, and statesmen in the future than he could meet with in any other way.

R. H. DABNEY.

UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA, December 1, 1889.

PEDAGOGY IN THE UNIVERSITIES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The letter in the last *Nation*, headed "Pedagogy in the Universities," meets a most sympathetic response in my heart. I know something from personal experience of the methods both of larger and smaller American colleges, and although my connection with them has been on the whole beneficial, it has not by any means been what it would if some of the professors in these same institutions had known how to teach.

In college, as in the university, the only question which seems to be asked in regard to the fitness of any person for a particular chair is, Does he know his subject? not, Does he know men and how to make them interested in his subject? If he stands in the first rank as a scholar, no further questions seem to be asked. Note the way that high-stand men in all our colleges are asked to come back and accept tutorships, sometimes immediately after graduation, sometimes after additional preparation, but always with the understanding that their qualification is knowledge of their subject, never a knowledge of the ways and means of imparting it. And the average tutor's conception of his position is one which will correspond with this principle of selection. He is not called a teacher, but a tutor—as if any word could possibly describe so anomalous a position. He sits before the class, hears them recite, flunks them, or lets them through easy—it makes no difference to him; makes a record of his judgment of their excellence, and then

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lets them out to give place to another class who are to be similarly treated. A patent, automatic, self-registering marking machine would be just as good, and better; it would not pretend to be a man.

This same vice runs through higher university grades, but it is not so widespread; not because there is any test of teaching ability required, but because a man who is old enough and knows enough to become a professor in theology, law, or medicine, generally (but not always) knows more about the human mind and its operations than the mathematical genius just graduated from college. But here scholarship is the one and only test. The ability to teach, or even the character of the man as indicating his ability to teach, seems wholly overlooked; and the man regards himself, like his more humble comrade, not as a teacher, but as a lecturer or professor. He sits before the class, rolls out information over the desk, rapidly or slowly, in ounce packages or at wholesale, just as it may suit his individual convenience or his own processes of thought. He creates an atmosphere which everybody in the room can feel, and which no one can be in doubt about, and which gives just as plain an impression as so many words: "This is *my* lecture-room. I shall do here just as I please. I am going to talk about such and such a subject. Whether you are interested or not, it makes no difference. Whether you are able to get into your brains any conception of it, is wholly a matter of indifference; and, as for asking a question for repetition or explanation, that is a hideous offence against my rights in my domain which I cannot tolerate an instant."

It is a matter of great wonder to large classes of students how persons who are known around the world for scholarship can be such poor teachers, and why educational institutions should ever ask such persons, without requiring the teaching gift, to take the time and provoke the patience of persons who are offering their time and money in the desire of being taught.

Very respectfully,
A Student.

INTERCOLLEGIATE ATHLETICS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The foot-ball season has closed. The dignified faculties may now cease making affidavits that they have not falsified their college records for the sake of strengthening "the team"; the broken bones may heal, the blackened eyes may bleach, and the undergraduates may now spend their time in watching the development of the candidates for the base-ball 'team" as they train in the gymnasium.

Are these intercollegiate contests wise? Do they promote the real, legitimate purposes of a college, so pungently expressed in your editorial on "Colleges Without Temptation" in the *Nation* of September 19, 1889? It hardly seems so to me.

What advantages result from these contests between the colleges? (1.) Provincialism is perhaps prevented by association thus brought about between the representatives of the different colleges; a little more unity (not harmony) is created in the college world. (2.) College patriotism is increased: none of us like to see our college beaten; all of us feel a pride in victory. As to whether this "patriotism" is of a lofty or even desirable order, I do not now inquire. I am unable to state other advantages. Now, what are the evils connected with and resultant from these contests?

(1.) Gambling. The amount of betting on the results of these games is something enormous. The gambling spirit becomes so strong and so widespread that he is a rare undergraduate who believes, and lives up to the belief, that obtaining money from another without rendering an equivalent, is but a form of robbery. When one observes the results of this gambling spirit, in the numerous defalcations of cashiers and trustees, caused by stock speculation; in the cases of "nervous prostration" among business men, caused more often by illegitimate side-shows in the stock market than by legitimate business; and in the wrecked fortunes and homes of the victims of some successful "deal"—the cultivation of this spirit among the young men who should occupy places of leadership in the business and professional world is not to be considered lightly.

(2.) Drinking. The pride the young alumnus feels in learning that his Alma Mater has defeated some rival college on the campus is somewhat alloyed when he also learns that the victors celebrated by looting all convenient bar-rooms, smashed car windows, and terrified the populace at all the stations along the route home, and that several of the young heroes were carted to their rooms helplessly drunk. Yet this is no overdrawn picture. From personal observation, I know that the habit of intemperate drinking has been greatly increased in at least one college by these mob visits to other institutions. It is considered "the thing" to drink then, if at no other time.

(3.) A spirit of brutality and unfairness is produced, the brutality more especially by foot-ball. The desire to win becomes so rampant that *any* means—"slugging," even maiming, tricks of all kinds—are resorted to. I remember that one stalwart but verdant Freshman became so thoroughly imbued with foot-ball spirit that he apologized to his captain, after the game, because his opponent in the rush-line had been able to endure his attack for fifteen minutes, when the Freshman had been strictly charged to "knock him out in five minutes." The newspaper reports for the past few weeks are sufficient evidence that no spirit of courteous fairness characterizes these contests.

(4.) The expense. The average expenses of a student in a New England college are now just about double the average yearly wages of a workingman. This great disproportion is a striking illustration of the fact that the gulf between the rich and the poor is constantly widening in America. If the present tendency continues, it soon will be impossible for the poor man's son to gain a college education in any other character than that of a "subsidized embryo preacher." It is much more difficult for a high-spirited young man to refuse to share in a college interest than it is for him to wear cheap clothes or occupy a poorly furnished room.

(5.) These intercollegiate contests *prevent* a general physical culture among the students. The moment there is a "'varsity team" in training, the whole athletic interest centres in it; the time that should be given to vigorous exercise is given to a hump-backed watching of the practising team from the fence or stand. There is actually less ball-playing in college when a nine is put in training than before; the tennis-courts are less frequented; the college populace takes its exercise like the Roman populace—by proxy. This is no small evil—this making a *concentrated extract of athlete*; it is bad for the extract and bad for the residuum.

(6.) These contests and their results attract a class of fellows to college that have no proper place there. The consequences are that a bad tone, morally and intellectually, is given to the college, interest in scholarly pursuits is decreased, degrees are given to many without the slightest real claim. In your editorial above referred to, you say: "The next great step in collegiate education in this country will, we believe, be the resolute shutting of the doors on all boys who are not eager to learn, and who are not willing, while at college, to lead scholastic lives." Yet the plea is made that these contests advertise the colleges, and make them attractive to rich men's sons who do not care for such stupid pursuits as science and literature. The inducements held out to men of not the slightest taste or capacity for scholarship to enter certain colleges, are a disgrace to American education. The degree of A.B. is just as likely to mean that a young man is a good ball-player as that he has a trained mind. Instead of an atmosphere of scholarship, the tendency is towards an atmosphere of professional sporting. The professors find little responsiveness in their class-rooms, become disgusted, and do not give out the best that is in them. The best teacher in the world will not long teach well unless his students show some appreciation of his work.

American college graduates are no longer boys: the average age is now very nearly twenty-three. If non-professional studies are to be pursued to this age, the college degree ought to mean a broad and thorough culture; but this can be acquired only by earnest labor in serious and manly pursuits. I submit that these intercollegiate contests are an evil to be abolished.

G. W. A.

Boston, December 2, 1889.

SOMETHING NEW IN CONSTITUTIONAL LAW.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: An interesting bit of development in constitutional law is going on just now in Colorado. It may be remembered that the Constitution of Colorado, admitted as a State in 1876—the latest State, until our recent four—was a pronounced specimen of what seems to some of us, not to say it disrespectfully, that degraded modern form of constitution in which the Legislature is restrained by many detailed prohibitions. It was this instrument, probably, to which Mr. Bryce alluded ('American Commonwealth,' i, 427) when he said, in describing the kind: "We even find the method prescribed in which stationery and coals for the use of the Legislature shall be contracted for." Constitution of Colorado, art. v, sec. 29.

After eight or nine years' experience with this instrument, the people of Colorado, in 1886, adopted an amendment to it which at first sight looks merely like what several other constitutions have—a provision for enabling the Legislature and the Executive to get an advisory opinion from the judges. It was this:

"The Supreme Court shall give its opinion upon important questions upon solemn occasions, when required by the Governor, the Senate, or the House of Representatives; and all such opinions shall be published in connection with the reported decisions of the Court."

It is well known that a clause very similar to this has long existed in four New England constitutions, and that it was afterwards introduced into the Constitution of Missouri (and subsequently left out) and into that of Florida. So, also, is it lately introduced into that of our new State of South Dakota.

But Colorado has a peculiarity. Everywhere else, the provision calls for the opinion of "the justices" of the court, and the construction given to it (with a single exception) is, that the

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opinions are merely advisory. This construction seems clearly right: these clauses simply introduce a piece of English constitutional procedure, and nothing is more certain than that such opinions in England are only advisory. The exception above referred to is found in an opinion in 70 Maine at p. 583. But that opinion has various marks of being ill-considered; among others is the circumstance that it omits to recognize that the contrary doctrine had been repeatedly laid down by judges in Maine, and that it was established elsewhere, wherever the question had been raised. Now, in Colorado, the Supreme Court, in an opinion of last spring, lately printed, in 21 Pacif. Rep. 478, takes notice of this distinction, and, after declaring that "it is the court and not the justices that must answer," goes on to say that "our responses must be reported as are other opinions, and *they have all the force and effect of judicial precedents.*" This is a very remarkable result, that of giving to such informal answers a judicial quality, the quality of authority and precedent; and one may well doubt whether the Court is not over-emphasizing the effect of using the word "*court*" instead of "*justices of the court.*" For the history of this sort of thing must be remembered, and its interpretation elsewhere. The reporting of these answers is common everywhere. And it seems worthy of remark that the Colorado amendment seems to contrast these "*opinions*" with the "*decisions* of the Court."

But I am postponing too long the main point of my letter. It lies in the following interesting passage from the opinion of Helm, C. J., speaking for "the court," in the case above named:

"The history of this constitutional amendment may be consulted with advantage in the endeavor to discover its purpose. The successive legislatures meeting after the admission of Colorado to Statehood *encountered great difficulty in the enactment of laws*, on account of numerous wise but troublesome limitations contained in the Constitution. Perplexity and confusion arose in consequence of legislation which this court was ultimately compelled to hold invalid. It was deemed expedient that each house should have the privilege of submitting questions, so that the injurious consequences arising from unconstitutional legislation might be avoided by having the validity of proposed legislative acts thus determined in advance. . . . All the questions propounded by the General Assembly of 1887, which was the first to meet after the adoption of the amendment [the Court gave seventeen of these opinions that term], . . . rested upon legislative doubts as to the constitutionality of certain proposed acts or parts of acts."

The Court draws the conclusion that "executive questions must be purely *juris publici*, and that legislative questions must be connected with pending legislation, and relate either to the constitutionality thereof or to matters connected therewith of purely public right."

Here, then (if we assume the Court's construction to be sound), we have a State getting into trouble by tying up its Legislature with many petty restrictions, and then trying to get out of its trouble by giving its judges the portentous power of settling by an authoritative manifesto, unaided by argument, the question of whether the Legislature has conformed to these requirements. And the consequences of this construction are so serious that the Court restricts the natural meaning of the language of the new amendment so as to limit it to particular classes of questions.

It would be interesting to know whether the Court has stated the full strength of the arguments for saying that these opinions in Colorado should "have all the force and effect of judicial precedents." If it has, the question may, perhaps, be regarded as not yet finally settled. JAMES B. THAYER.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., December 7, 1889.

SYSTEMS OF TAXATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am very much obliged to "G. W. A." for his recognition of my efforts in behalf of executive leadership in our legislatures. My attention has of late been diverted from the importance of this in the national legislatures to the still greater and more pressing need in the States—greater because our State governments are still more demoralized and chaotic than at Washington. Taxation is one, and perhaps the most important, branch of administration, and if our Governor had some real and positive power, and had, together with a staff of leading officials of his own choosing, a seat in the Legislature, the unjust, impolitic, and wholly abominable system of taxation which prevails in Massachusetts would not remain long without vigorous attack.

Though regarding it as a side issue, I will try to meet "G. W. A.'s" fair and candid argument. In the first place, it is not proposed to tax one kind of property at the expense of another, but simply to collect the tax from quick capital *through* the land and buildings. Thus, if I own land with a building on it, it would make no difference to me if the tax was doubled, provided my tenant would increase his rent by the same amount. A farmer would be perfectly willing to double the tax on his farm, provided he could make up the difference in the price of his produce. The fact is, quick capital will still pay its share of taxes, only it will do what men like so much better—pay indirectly instead of directly.

Mr. George's single-tax theory, if I understand it, is that land alone shall be taxed; so that a lot of land which is not occupied and has no income, shall pay the same tax as land immediately adjoining which is covered with buildings and gets a large income. Mr. George, in fact, regards private ownership in land as the source of all human woe, and desires to tax it out of existence. I respectfully protest against being connected with any such doctrine.

Of course the great difficulty in transferring all taxes to land and buildings would be the transition, as at first the change would doubtless bear heavily on real estate. I think, however, that even this might be overcome by an expedient which it would take too much space to state here; but the condition of Vermont and New Hampshire is so desperate as to call for desperate remedies.

"G. W. A." says that the presence of quick capital on land is owing to the nature of the soil, or its suitableness for the purposes of men. No doubt; but what I maintain is, that taxation can greatly increase this attractiveness, or cancel it altogether. There is a buiding going up on State Street ten stories high, and covering an acre of land, to be used for offices. The owners of that building would gladly pay three times, perhaps five times, as much in taxes as any equal amount of land and buildings if they could secure the condition that their tenants should be free from personal taxation, while all other citizens were forced to make returns of all their personal property for taxation. If the case were reversed, the owners could not pay any taxes at all, as they could not let a room. What is true of this building is just as true of the whole city or State.

"G. W. A." says that my plan is like taxing agricultural industries and favoring manufacturing. Not at all. The farmer loses more by the increased tax on his quick capital, as "G. W. A." shows later on, than he gains from the factory, especially as he is thus still more overweighted as against Western produce. The other plan merely changes the incidence of taxation, placing it on all land and buildings alike, leaving quick capital to do what and go where it likes.

"G. W. A." says that the farms near the cities have declined more than those more remote. That only proves that the farmer near the cities finds out quicker what is killing him. Moreover, I think it could be shown that the cities and towns themselves, in those States, have lost ground quite as much as the farms, *relatively* to the rest of the country. I doubt if there are many cities in the country with less manufacturing, in proportion to size, than Boston. The system of taxation destroys, or seriously hampers, all kinds of industry and enterprise. As to the tariff on clothing and iron, that is no special disadvantage to New England, and affects equally the whole country.

There is some special cause in New England, and I believe the one assigned is more potent than all others put together. Few persons have any idea of the tremendous power of taxation in affecting social conditions. Somebody has said, "Give me the imposition of taxes, and I can make grass grow on Broadway in New York." The statement is not in the least exaggerated, and he could hardly employ a better instrument than the present tax law of Vermont.

I return to the original point: We have no machinery for reforming the tax system or anything else. The Legislatures and their committees are in a condition of perfect chaos—without guidance, without coherence, and without policy. Executive leadership is the one imperative need. The Cabinet should have seats in Congress, the State officials in the Legislatures, and the city heads of departments in the Councils. The only way to keep executive and legislative powers separate is to bring the two branches into contact, and let each fight for its own rights. G. B.

BOSTON, November 30, 1889.

SPEECH SURVIVALS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In regard to the vocable "Vat" written of by your correspondent, "W. I. R.," I would say that, in my childhood fifty years ago in Georgia, I have heard old people, speaking of the staple of Georgia before cotton, viz., indigo, which was prepared in a *vat*, invariably pronouncing it *fat*. Among these were two old lawyers, who, as was then not uncommon, had graduated at Oxford—and one had read law in the Temple. I remember it because the anomalous pronunciation puzzled me.

Your correspondent, Mr. Morgan, neglected to mention that there was a *Latin* word for bribery in "blocks," not an equivalent of δεκάζεσθαι, videlicet, *decuriare*. There is no question but the *thing* was in existence long before Col. Dudley, and there is a lack of information as to the method. It could not have been more familiar than with us.

Your obedient servant,
KENNON, A.M.

SILVER CITY, NEW MEXICO, November 29, 1889.

THE KENTUCKIAN AND HIS HONOR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A serious difficulty in accounting for Kentucky feuds on the ground that the Ken-

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tuckian regards his honor as more precious than his life, lies in the fact that commonly the man with wounded honor is found seeking the life of somebody else instead of committing *hara-kiri*. In one Kentucky town recently, a man who thought he had been falsely accused went dramatically into the principal street, declared the charge unfounded, and then and there cut his own throat in proof of his innocence and honor. Instead of making a hero of him, the neighbors generally voted him weak-minded.

Is there not something the matter with an honor that must be constantly guarded with pistol and knife? A robust honor should take care of itself without such defences.

Yours respectfully, W. E. C. WRIGHT.

BEREA, KY., December 3, 1889.

NATIONAL IGNORANCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: What about *national* ignorance? Some fifty Americans were asked quite recently to name the year of Washington's birth and the year of his death. Two only were able to answer.

To the question of how many States and Territories there are at present in the Union, no answer could be given.

How many Americans can answer either of the above questions without reference to books? X.

NOVEMBER 30, 1889.

THE HEREDITARY PRINCIPLE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the closing paragraph of an article on "The Hereditary Principle" in the *Nation* of November 28, surprise is expressed that "popular faith in 'blood' should . . . be as strong as it is, in view of the extreme rarity with which parents transmit either great mental or moral qualities to their offspring." Now, the fact is that popular faith, if it really exist, is probably well founded, as the investigations of Francis Galton, published under the title 'Hereditary Genius,' go a long way towards proving. To every one will occur, on reflection, cases of families in which peculiar gifts of mind and character have been transmitted from parent to child, for generations. The well-known hereditary nature of the tendency to insanity, as well as the existence of "criminal families," in which the tendency towards criminality is inherited, are evidence in the same direction.

It must be borne in mind that the influence of the nature of both parents in the hereditary character of the offspring is about equal; hence, where only one of the parents is markedly above the average, the tendency would be for the influence of the other to weaken that of the gifted parent; and, furthermore, as Galton seems to have proved in his last work, 'Natural Inheritance,' the influence of both parents together on the character of the child is about equal to that of the long line of previous ancestors.—Your obedient servant, A. M.

NEW YORK, November 30, 1889.

A HIMYARITIC COLLECTION IN THE MARKET.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Permit me to call the attention of scholars and others to the fact that the collection of monuments and squeezes of Himyaritic inscriptions which Edward Glaser brought with him from his last trip to Arabia is now for sale. The Himyaritic stones number thirty-six, some of them containing inscriptions of unusual length, while the squeezes taken by Glaser run up to so high a figure as seven hundred, among them inscriptions numbering several hundred lines. The price demanded for the collection is 70,000 marks, or about $17,500, which seems very high, but is not exorbitant when we have the assurance of Glaser himself that his trip alone cost him 40,000 marks. The inscriptions, it must further be borne in mind, represent unpublished material; and from the glimpses which Glaser shows us in his recent pamphlet, it is evident that their contents are of vast importance, furnishing us with the names of new rulers in southern Arabia, throwing unhoped-for light upon the beginnings of the powers that once flourished in Yemen, and otherwise adding directly to our stock of knowledge.

Mr. Glaser, in a letter recently received by me, states that he would be particularly pleased to have his collection go to the United States. The opportunity is now offered us to secure for some one of our museums or universities one of the rarest prizes that have been put on the market in this age of great archæological discoveries. If we let the opportunity slip by, the European museums will be grateful to us; if we desire to arouse their envy, let some wealthy individual who believes in the encouragement of scholarship in this country step forward and guarantee the sum. If our country is ever to be as productive in original research as European countries are, it can only be through filling our museums and providing our universities with *original* material. What a great step in advance the acquisition of the Glaser collection would be! And what a sad thing it would be if we allowed other museums to obtain what is now as a first choice offered to us.

Mr. Glaser awaits a reply from this country, but he will not wait very long. I shall be glad to answer any questions with regard to the collection that may be put to me, and also to put prospective buyers into direct connection with the distinguished traveller.

Very respectfully, MORRIS JASTROW, JR.

UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA, PHILADELPHIA, Dec. 2, 1889.

Notes.

THE J. G. Cupples Publishing Co., Boston, have in press 'Vigilante Days and Ways; or, The Pioneers of the Rockies,' being side-lights on the makers and making of Montana, Idaho, Oregon, Washington, and Wyoming, by Nathaniel Pitt Langford. It will be in two volumes, elaborately illustrated.

Two volumes will also be given to the lectures on Systematic Theology delivered by Prof. Buel at the General Theological Seminary, of which Thomas Whittaker will be the publisher.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston, have in press or in preparation 'The North Shore Watch,' a volume of verse by Mr. George E. Woodberry; a Life of Charles G. Finney, the once-famous revivalist, by Prof. G. Frederick Wright of Oberlin; a Life of Bryant, by Mr. John Bigelow; and 'Conversations in a Studio,' by W. W. Story.

Charles Scribner's Sons will shortly publish 'Said in Fun,' a collection of the wittiest sayings of the late Philip H. Welch, with much unpublished matter and numerous full-page drawings by our humorous artists.

Under the probable title of 'National Needs and Remedies,' the Baker & Taylor Co. will soon have ready the Proceedings of the Boston Conference of the Evangelical Alliance.

A correspondent admonishes us that we fell into a trap laid for us by the editors of the "Library of American Literature" in their latest (ninth) volume. Commenting on this, we noticed, what appeared to be the fact, that no littérateur born between 1829 and 1831, inclusive, was admitted to the collection. The eighth volume proves the contrary; but the reason for our not turning back to it was our faith in the chronological strictness of the arrangement, whereas Theodore Winthrop (first in vol. ix, born in 1828) was out of place, and was followed immediately by the men of 1832. Our correspondent further remarks an error on p. 471 of vol. ix, in the date of John Esten Cooke's death, which did not take place in 1863, but on September 27, 1886.

The "Bedford Edition" of Shakspere's Works, in the Chandos Classics series (Frederick Warne & Co.), consists of twelve pocket volumes neatly bound in a dull-red cloth, each page surrounded with a red border, and the typography very clear and sufficiently large. The sonnets and other poems are relegated to the last volume, together with the glossary—the text being devoid of footnotes. The editing is original, but we cannot examine it critically. This little library in its jewel-box is sold at a remarkably low price, and makes one of the most welcome of gifts.

The story of Mr. Fields's Boston edition of De Quincey's complete works, anticipating one by this author himself, and a very welcome aid towards the preparation of the latter, is told by Prof. David Masson in his general preface to a new fourteen-volume edition of 'The Collected Writings of Thomas De Quincey' (Edinburgh: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan). This preface, most agreeably written, ushers in the first volume, which begins with the autobiography; and it promises the kind of editing which one could wish to see. Logical arrangement and exact chronology, careful references to the sources (as in the worked-over matter), with a completeness as to contents not heretofore attained, and an "index to the whole edition," leave nothing to be desired in the way of programme, while Prof. Masson's competence is not to be disputed. The typographic conception of the work is admirable—the size duodecimo; the largest, surely, which should ever be thought of for De Quincey. Letter and press-work have the Scotch excellence, and the binding is a scarlet cloth. The initial volume has portraits and views of De Quincey's homes and lodgings. The enterprise will go forward at the rate of one issue monthly till the series is finished. We commend it to all admirers of the "Opium Eater."

Mr. Frank Stockton's story for children, 'What Might Have Been Expected,' is some fifteen years old, but there is plenty of life in it, and the publishers (Dodd, Mead & Co.) make, and need to make, no apology for reviving it. The theme is one which we can imagine being treated by the author of 'Daddy Jake,' though Mr. Stockton habitually develops his stories more at length than Mr. Harris.

Mrs. Valentine has collected, from Mme. d'Aulnoy, Charles Perrault, and others, 'The Old Old Fairy Tales,' and gently edited in the interest of refinement the versions found ready to hand. The volume is a thick one, of more than 500 pages (F. Warne & Co.), and may well find a place beside many briefer and less stilted renderings. The woodcuts in the text are of great variety and of various degrees of pertinence, yet harmonize among themselves; but the full colored plates are garish and out of key.

William Harwar Parker's 'Familiar Talks

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on Astronomy' (Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.) are so easy and pleasant that they may well attract readers who would be repelled by a volume of greater pretensions and more formal style. Even the little mathematical explanations on which he now and then enters become quite readable under his facile pen. It is, however, rather surprising that a naval officer who must have had easy access to good authorities, should have entertained so many exploded or unverified ideas, historic and scientific, as we find in his book. He seems to think the work of Thales as well known as that of Ptolemy, and Lockyer is his great modern authority.

Mr. C. A. M. Taber, an experienced sea captain, now resident at Wakefield, Mass., has sent us a pamphlet on 'Winds, Ocean Currents, and Ice Periods,' in the study of which he has found entertainment during his leisure for some ten years past. His citations show familiarity with a good number of well-known writers, but original sources are seldom referred to, and his work therefore necessarily loses much of freshness and strength. He seeks to explain great climatic changes by alternate blocking of the northern and southern oceans by ice barriers, whereby the winds and currents are seriously modified. It might be admitted that his consequences would follow if his postulates were accepted, but the acceptance of the latter is, unfortunately, quite out of the question.

Doty's 'Prompt Aid to the Injured' (Appleton) devotes considerable space to anatomy and hygiene, unwisely, as we think, in view of the character of the book. The illustrations in the chapters on bandages, the control of hæmorrhage, and resuscitation from drowning, are good, but the text contains too many words for the ideas. As it stands, it is insufficient to replace professional skill, and is scarcely dogmatic enough for the arbitrary direction of untrained men. The chapter on military transportation of wounded will probably have to be rewritten for the next edition, to bring it in accord with that of the regular army, which is now in a provisional state.

Pathology, as one of the foundations of practical medicine, daily grows in importance as it does in accuracy. 'A Text-Book of Pathology,' by Prof. Hamilton of Aberdeen, the first volume of which has just appeared (Macmillan), is the latest systematic contribution to this subject, and is an admirable example of what such a book should be for the working student, whether pupil or master. It not only describes the morbid conditions as found, but how to find them, beginning with detailed directions for making an autopsy, and including the technique of bacteriology and histology, with clear descriptions of the normal and diseased states, and with comments upon the causes of disease. The special qualities of this work are its completeness, its simplicity of style, its copiousness and beauty of illustration, and its bibliography. Although written for the medical student, the student of histology in our collegiate scientific departments would find much of it valuable for reference.

Dr. Postgate has given us, in the words of the poet himself, a *lepidum novom libellum* in his critical edition of Catullus (London: G. Bell & Sons). The dainty little volume might almost be *pumice expolitus*, so spotless and fresh-looking is its dress. Within, the editor has collected the emendations which he has offered the learned world at various times in German and English periodicals. They are always thoughtful, and often supply useful suggestions, even when one may not be disposed to accept entirely the editor's conclusions. In the MS. readings he follows Schwabe's collation, but has taken especial care to restore the contemporary spelling, and, rightly we think, departs in many instances from even the best manuscripts. We recommend the book to all lovers of the poet.

The long-established idea that women's minds are made of some soft and flabby material, totally unlike the tough masculine fibre, must apparently be definitively given up, for even the women of Texas are beginning to feel the irksomeness of a mollusc-like state of existence. Prof. Halsted, in his report to the President of the Board of Regents of the University of Texas, says: "Several young ladies have shown *marked ability* in the acquirement of the newer and more abstruse developments of the science, for example, quaternions."

From Utica, N. Y., there reaches us the first number of *College and School*, "a monthly magazine for teachers, students, and parents," and edited in the spirit of its motto—from Pope:

"—— half our knowledge we must snatch, not take."

It offers several brief original papers on educational topics, literary notes and reviews, and college news—this last in desperately fine type.

Mr. G. R. Carpenter contributes to the last two numbers of the *Harvard Monthly* a translation (through the German) of Ibsen's "Lady of the Sea," in five acts. A four-act play, "Rosmersholm," by the same masterful dramatist, is also appearing in English in the new Boston eclectic, the *Transatlantic*. This very handsomely printed journal, by the way, "a mirror of European life and letters," succeeds well in carrying out a novel design. A portrait of some celebrity, by photographic process, adorns the cover of each issue—Ibsen's leading off in No. 1, if our memory serves us. The adoption of a French face for its letterpress does not approve itself to our judgment.

The November number of *Sun and Shade* (New York: The Photogravure Co.) consists of eight plates of the usual variety and good quality; a bit from Meissonier's "Friedland" at the fore. There is a view of the noble archway of the Cemetery of Columbus at Havana, and several interesting nature studies.

The half-century of photographic achievement since Daguerre was lately commemorated in Berlin by the Deutsche Gesellschaft der Photographie, and some interesting examples drawn from this exhibition are given by Prof. H. W. Vogel in connection with an article in *Vom Fels zum Meer* in its third issue for 1889-'90 (New York: F. W. Christern). Instantaneous dry-plate performances are mingled with numerous portraits of the imperial family, Berlin artists, etc. Some American scenic and character views are included.

The annual and occasional publications of the Arundel Society for the current year are all executed by W. Greve, Berlin. We have received from the American agents, E. & J. B. Young & Co., the "Christ Bound to the Column," from the fresco by Bazzi now in the Accademia of Siena, after a water-color drawing by Herr Kaiser. It is an admirable reproduction, well adapted for framing by the symmetry of the design, the near column dividing a distant arch through which sky and lake are visible. The picture is pleasing also from its good drawing of the figure of Christ, and from the absence of the extreme painfulness of the crucifixion.

A compilation from the joint State and United States survey of Massachusetts during the years 1884-'87 has just been issued by the U. S. Geological Survey at Washington. It shows the whole of the State in four sheets, on a scale of four miles to the inch, with a delineation of the contours at intervals of a hundred feet. The main object of this beautiful map is so far topographical that the insertion of town names is almost arbitrary; thus, to take a well-known instance, the town of Old Hadley is not set down.

The American Folk-Lore Society held its first annual meeting in Philadelphia, November 29 and 30. Officers were elected as follows: President, Dr. D. G. Brinton of Philadelphia; Secretary, Mr. W. W. Newell of Cambridge, Mass.; Treasurer, Mr. Henry Phillips, jr., of Philadelphia; and a council composed of fourteen members. Provision was made for life-membership. It was brought to the attention of the Society that no adequate means existed for printing investigations in American mythology and folk-lore. Authority was accordingly given to the Council to print monographs, in addition to the journal of the Society (the *Journal of American Folk-Lore*), so far as the funds at their disposal should prove to permit. Among papers read was one by Mr. James Mooney of the Bureau of Ethnology, giving an account of the recent discovery by him of manuscripts of the Cherokee medicine-men, containing their medicinal formulas and spells, and revealing in detail their theory of the cause and cure of disease. About eighty members have recently been added to the Society in Philadelphia, where, as well as in Boston, it is proposed to form a local branch.

—We record with the deepest regret the death, at Cannes, on December 5, of Gen. Francis Winthrop Palfrey of Boston, son of the late John G. Palfrey, one of the noblest and purest of the political abolitionists, and the standard historian of early New England. Gen. Palfrey was a graduate of Harvard College and its Law School (classes of 1851 and 1853). Like so many of his fellow-alumni, he threw himself with all his soul into the war of the rebellion, where, as an officer in the Twentieth Massachusetts, he won great distinction for gallantry, and, though wounded, served from beginning to end. Resuming the practice of the law, he married a daughter of the late Sidney Bartlett. He continued to be a student of the war, wrote an admirable memoir of his eminent companion in arms, Gen. W. F. Bartlett, a no less praiseworthy account of Antietam and Fredericksburg for the "Campaigns of the Civil War," was a contributor to the Military Papers of the Historical Society of Massachusetts, and, down to the year 1882, a frequent reviewer of military works for the *Nation*. By that date, perhaps conscious of the disease which has caused his death in his fifty-ninth year, he resolved, as he wrote us on May 12, "to decline all literary labor outside of completing my father's history." General Palfrey was a man of singular sweetness, justness, and probity of character, and as fine an example of patriot and Puritan stock as this generation has seen. He will be greatly missed.

— A still earlier contributor to the *Nation*, and perhaps the most constant if not the most voluminous in the quarter century of this journal's existence, passed away very suddenly at Madison, Wis., on Monday morning, December 9. Prof. William Francis Allen began writing for the *Nation* with its fourth issue, and it might be said with more truth than exaggeration that hardly a number had since appeared without something from his pen. His first essays were political, connected with his recent visit, in 1865, to South Carolina, and the prospects of reconstruction at the South; and it is characteristic of his versatile talent that on that journey he noted down the songs

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(words and music) of the late bondmen, which presently, in 1867, led to the publication of the 'Slave Songs of the United States,' the first and the best work of its kind. To this invaluable collection Prof. Allen, as senior editor, furnished also the Introduction, on the negro dialect, which had already been treated by him in No. 24 of the *Nation*. His interest in the betterment of our political system and customs ever remained very strong, and he wrote much for these columns on minority, personal, or proportional representation; on civil-service reform; on city government, etc. His occasional letters to the editor on these and some other topics were uniformly signed "Marcel." His range as a reviewer was very wide, embracing ornithology, political economy, history (ancient and modern, European, Oriental, and American), English literature, and the classical languages and literature. His scholarship was extremely solid, and his accuracy remarkable in a high degree. His first chair (in Greek and Latin) was at Antioch College, from which he passed in 1867 to the University of Wisconsin, becoming Professor of Ancient Languages, and afterwards of the Latin Language and Literature, and latterly of History, for which he had, by direct inheritance from his father, the Rev. Joseph Allen, the strongest inclination. In this domain he never had the leisure to produce a work commensurate with his knowledge and powers, and this will always be cause for regret, though it is typical of the necessity under which American professors labor. We trust, however, that the text-book on the history of Rome on which he had been engaged was left in a shape fit for publication, if it be not already passing through the press. He had made a special study, since 1871, of the subject of village communities. Prof. Allen was born in Northborough, Mass., September 5, 1830, of a family distinguished in the educational annals of New England and in the Unitarian denomination. He was a classmate at Harvard of General Palfrey, Prof. W. W. Goodwin, Prof. Langdell, Prof. Dunbar, and other eminent men. His singleness and elevation of mind, his modesty, conscientiousness, and amiable and disinterested traits endeared him to all who knew him. The *Nation* in particular feels that in his departure it has lost a part of itself.

—Kent's edition of 'Elene' (Boston: Ginn & Co.) will be serviceable to our teachers and students of Anglo-Saxon. It is based in the main upon the editorial labors of Wülker and Zupitza. We regret the use of the circumflex to mark vowel-length, especially of diphthongs. The printing of the Latin 'Vita Quiriaci' under the Anglo-Saxon text is a happy idea. Less happy are some of the editor's views and statements. The description of the Vercelli MS. will have to be modified according to Napier's paper (*Zeitschrift für deutsches Altertum*, xxxiii, 67), published, it is true, after the editor had written his introduction. The discussion of the metrical features of the poem errs both in what it gives and what it withholds. It gives a quasi-tabulation of the so-called rhymes in 'Elene.' To our mind, or rather to our ear, these are in most instances no rhymes at all. We are not prepared to accept as rhyme a mere coincidence of sound in *unstressed* syllables. On the other hand, the editor has not said a word about Sievers's metrical system, one of the most important discoveries since the formulation of Verner's law. In general we suspect that Kent has given insufficient heed to Sievers, else he would scarcely have ventured to assert, p. 4, that "there is no linguistic testimony to a Northumbrian origin." Not a few of the notes would be better placed, we judge, in the glossary, under the respective words that they explain. What warrant there is for asserting, note to v. 766, that the Saxon conception of hell was of a huge monster whose mouth was the entrance, we fail to discover. To swell the list of corrigenda would serve no purpose, and would do the editor injustice. His work is in the main thoroughly scholarly and practical, and worthy of its place in the series.

—Mention of Kent's edition of 'Elene' leads us naturally to speak of Garnett's translation (Ginn & Co). Together with the 'Elene,' Garnett has rendered in this volume 'Judith,' the 'Fight at Brunanburh,' and the 'Fight at Maldon.' Bearing in mind his previous translation of 'Beowulf,' we are led to hope that Prof. Garnett will in time give us Grein's entire 'Corpus' in modern verse. Those who wish to indulge in comparisons will examine Garnett's metrical rendering of the 'Elene' with Weymouth's prose. His rendering of 'Judith' may also be examined with that in Cook's edition. Without venturing to enter into the minutiæ of single passages, we wish to say a general word or two concerning what seems to us the proper vehicle for rendering Anglo-Saxon verse. Ever since the promulgation of Sievers's theory, with its *a*, *b*, *c*, *d*, *e*-feet, two points are clear: first, that previous conceptions, or misconceptions, will have to be discarded; second, that the Anglo-Saxon (or rather primitive Teutonic) system cannot be made to fit into any other system, classic or modern. We must content ourselves with an approximation, and it seems to us that the modern translator of Anglo-Saxon verse can scarcely do better than adopt the easy-going rhythmical four-beat measure common in popular poetry of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, and sanctioned even by Spenser in the 'Shepherd's Calendar.' "These wisards welter in welth's waves" (*July*, 197) may serve as a model. We should have a line with a strongly marked cæsura, two strongly marked syllables in each hemistich, and at least one alliterative syllable in each. We believe that these requirements can be satisfied, and at the same time the sense rendered closely. Garnett's lines do not satisfy our ear. Verse without terminal rhyme should have either an unmistakable metrical flow (like that of blank verse, for instance), or an equally unmistakable alliterative flow. It would be supererogation on our part to discuss Garnett's translation as translation. It is clear and scholarly. We have not the space for details, much less for fault-finding. The book will be a help to teacher and pupil.

—Eleven years ago the gentleman who calls himself "Professor Hoffmann" published 'Modern Magic,' by far the best book then existing in our language on the fascinating mysteries of the conjurer's art; and since then he has translated adroitly, and edited with abundant notes, three invaluable works on the same subject by the late Robert Houdin, the great modern master of the art of magic. In these eleven years more mysteries have been evolved, and these "Professor Hoffmann" now sets forth with his wonted skill in a stout volume which he calls 'More Magic' (George Routledge & Sons). This is really a supplement to the earlier work, with which it is uniform in size and in its illustrations. As in 'Modern Magic,' the author begins at the beginning, with the conjurer's table, the *servante* and the *pochette*, and with the substitutes for these, with his wand and with his dress—all of which may be efficient aids in the performance of one trick or another. Then in turn he considers card-tricks, with and without apparatus; tricks with coins; with watches and rings, with handkerchiefs, and with balls; tricks of divination (including, it may be well to note, a true explanation of "second sight," so called); tricks with hats; tricks with eggs; and, last of all, more elaborate stage tricks (including here the "Vanishing Lady" of M. Buatier de Kolta, one of the foremost of Robert Houdin's followers, and like him in his most artistic neatness of combination). A comparison of 'More Magic' with the books on conjuring written in the first half of this century will reveal at once the constant effort of all conjurers towards the apparent elimination of apparatus. The magician of to-day uses quite as many mechanical contrivances as his predecessor of fifty years ago, but he seems to use few or none. The tone of Professor Hoffmann's book is manly and pleasant, and his hearty praise for his contemporaries is not to be overlooked.

ADAMS'S ADMINISTRATION OF JEFFERSON.—I.

History of the United States of America during the First Administration of Thomas Jefferson. By Henry Adams. 2 vols. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1889.

MR. ADAMS enters at once upon the historical task set before him in these volumes without a word of formal preface or of formal introduction. Nor was it needful that he should make any such sign, by way either of indicating his historical point of view or of proving his special competency to deal with this period in our political annals. To those who are familiar with his former writings it is enough to say that prefatory hints of the most significant kind as to the author's *manière de voir* may be found in his excellent biography of Albert Gallatin, in his careful edition of Gallatin's works, in his vivid sketch of John Randolph, and in his study of 'New England Federalism.' And he could well dispense with the words of a formal introduction when in six whole chapters, crowded with descriptive facts and illumined with philosophical comment, he has constructed a fitting portal through which the reader may approach the Jeffersonian epoch. In these most suggestive chapters Mr. Adams discusses the physical and the economical conditions of the problem which nature had placed before the founders of our Government at the beginning of the Federal Union; the salient characteristics of the American people in point of their social and moral evolution at the period of Jefferson's accession to the Presidency; the peculiarities of intellect manifested respectively by the inhabitants of New England, of the Middle States, and of the Southern States; and, finally, the ideals (ideals working all the more surely to a predestined end because working without a clear collective consciousness) which even at that early day were forcing their subtile influence through the apparently hard and repulsive elements of a raw social order.

These introductory chapters are so striking and so philosophical that we could have wished for still another chapter, which should have been devoted to a descriptive analysis of the elements of party formation in the United States, that the real nature and the true proportions of the antithesis between the old Federalists who framed the Constitution and the Republicans who effected "the revolution of 1800" might have been set before the reader in a clearer light. Without some such analysis the reader is left to pick his way in the dark

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through the nexus of events and logic of ideas which led to the election of Jefferson. The services of the Federalist party were so immense, the roll of its heroes, confessors, and martyrs —Washington, John Adams, Marshall, Jay, Hamilton—is so splendid with great names, and yet its fall from power was so deep, and the popular obloquy which subsequently overwhelmed it was so universal and permanent under the long ascendancy of the Jeffersonian democracy, that some theory of political causation should have been formally propounded in explanation of so startling a result. It would seem to have been a natural prologue to the swelling scenes so dramatically exhibited by Mr. Adams. We venture this suggestion the more confidently because, in another place—in his Life of Gallatin—Mr. Adams has expressed the conviction that the dissidence of opinions and passions between the Federalist and the Republican parties was so wide, at least in the day of their sharp cleavage, that any attempt of the historian "to imagine a possible middle ground" for the conciliation of their acts and motives, as alike patriotic and wise, can only have for its effect to "make both parties ridiculous." Especially would it seem that the stirring epoch of transition between the old political order and the new might have been unfolded to us by lifting the curtain on the political combinations which threatened for a time not only the defeat of Jefferson in the House of Representatives, but the very existence of the Government. The Federalist decadence and the damaging coquetry of the Federalists with Burr—facts which fill so large a place in these pages—might there have been seen in the first hot ferment of a soured and despondent patriotism.

Bidding a truce to all such preliminary discussions, Mr. Adams begins his narrative with the day when Jefferson ascended the steps of the Capitol to take the oath of office as President of the United States. If upon most of the political questions comprised within the first term of Jefferson's Administration, the author, as already intimated, has shown his hand in the works we have named, this fact does not suffice at all to bate the interest which the intelligent reader will take in the present history. The historic point of view differs in scope, in scheme, and in critical method from that of the biographer. And, besides, a great mass of new materials has been put in requisition for the preparation of this treatise. The unpublished archives of the French and English State Departments as well as of our own have been laid under contribution. The springs of many a movement which were before obscure are here brought to sight, and thus the reader is helped to follow the logic of events with an order which has gained lucidity from new discoveries, and, we may add, with a philosophy which has gained new insight from a widened historical perspective.

In his portraiture of Jefferson's character, it is plain that Mr. Adams has tried to practise the strictest impartiality. Indeed, this virtue is sometimes so strenuous, not to say constrained, in its forms of manifestation as to suggest that the writer finds no little difficulty in letting the grace have its perfect work—so intractable and so complicated does he find the character under his hand. It has been pleasantly said of Cousin that he fell desperately in love with Mme. de Longueville by force of long writing and thinking about her, although that yellow-haired and blue-eyed beauty, half a *mondaine* heroine and half a Jansenist saint, had been dead and buried nearly two hundred years. The Tory critics never cease complaining that Macaulay always brings his "rage of advocacy" into the grand assize of history whenever Whig King William is arraigned at the bar of judgment. Motley takes no pains to conceal the glow of fine enthusiasm with which he is inspired by the contemplation of William the Silent. Mr. Adams is determined to keep his mind clear from all such illusions of hero worship, simply because he cannot absolutely make up his mind concerning Jefferson's real character, so mixed and various are the elements which compose it. Conceding that the sage of Monticello, according to all the received standards of greatness, must be pronounced "a great man"; that on his accession to the Presidency he claimed the place of an equal between Pitt and Bonaparte in the sphere of European politics, and in the sphere of home politics made himself such an idol of the people that for eight long years he appeared to be "the Government itself"; that he ruled in Washington with the power of a King while practising, as all typical Virginians did, "the austerity of Cato and the simplicity of Ancus Marcius"; that he was the representative of an "ideal purity" in American politics—conceding all this, Mr. Adams never allows the reader to lose from his view the "seamy side" in Jefferson's mental and moral temperament—at least as that seamy side appeared to hostile critics as candid as John Marshall, and to venomous enemies as rancorous as James Thompson Callender.

An "aristocrat" by birth, and, for the times in which he lived, "excessively refined" in his tastes, yet theoretically the most thoroughpaced of democrats; delighting in the intellectual life of science and art, yet "superficial in his knowledge and a martyr to the disease of omniscience"; with a subtile feeling for artistic and literary form betraying itself in his writings ("the sure mark of intellectual sensuousness," whispers Mr. Adams), yet "seldom writing a page without exposing himself to attack"; a man of affairs who ventured boldly on the stormy ocean of politics, and yet so "feminine" in his mental constitution that he "yearned for love and praise," and such a theorist that he was prepared to "risk the fate of mankind on the chances of a reasoning process which was far from certain in its details"; with instincts which led him to "widen the bounds of every intellectual exercise," yet narrowing the theoretical scope of the Federal Government in which he was the chief actor; unswervingly "true to the faith of his life," yet ("if his enemies are to be believed") indulging occasionally in "misstatements of fact," in "exaggerations or equivocations" of speech, and in the "kindly prevarications" of political complaisance; exhibiting a rare "consistency in his career," yet making that consistency the more remarkable because of the "inconsistencies of the moment" with which his career was attended; with a "gentle optimism" in his theory of political conduct, yet liable to "outbursts of temper" in both his official and his private discourse; "pure in both his private and public life," yet called again and again to defend himself against "large numbers of his worthiest fellow-citizens, who . . . despised him as they did the vermin they trod upon"—Thomas Jefferson seems to Mr. Adams a bundle of "contradictions." Yet it is these very "contradictions," he says, which have always made the character of Jefferson "a fascinating study," because "in any other man such contradictions would have argued dishonesty." "Almost every other American statesman," adds the writer, "might be described in a parenthesis. A few broad strokes of the brush would paint the portraits of all the early Presidents, with this exception, and a few more strokes would answer for any member of their many Cabinets; but Jefferson could be painted only touch by touch with a fine pencil, and the perfection of the likeness depends upon the shifting and uncertain flicker of its semi-transparent shadows." Yet this man, whom Mr. Adams finds it so hard to understand, was able in some way to impress his personality on the great mass of the American common people with a power and universality which proved him level to the popular sense. It was under the Administration of Jefferson that the American people became democratic in their habits, beliefs, and ideas. Mr. Adams admits that it was largely through the influence of this enigmatical man that a radical change was made in the national mind and temper. "As a democrat," he says, "Jefferson's social success was sweeping and final."

It seems to us that much useful light may be shed on this mystery if we grope for it in the living elements of party formation at that period, instead of hunting for "contradictions" in Jefferson's character. Talleyrand thought it a supreme proof of Alexander Hamilton's perspicacity in politics that, even from his remote point of view, he had been able to "divine Europe"—that is, to form an intuitive presage of the political forces required for the repression of European democracy, after the example set and the lesson taught by the French Revolution. In like manner it may be said of Jefferson that, more than other statesmen of his time, he "divined America"—that is, formed an intuitive presage of those evolutionary forces in the American mind which soon left the position of the old Federalists completely out of sight, like "a half-way house between the European past and the American future," to use the striking phrase of Mr. Adams. Mr. Adams chronicles the fact that Jefferson—"this most active-minded and sanguine of Virginians"—was the inventor of the first scientific plough in the United States, and we know that he loved to disport with scientific discussions, as if he had already some dim forecast of the truth, so impressively expounded by Mr. Adams, that the future of the United States was bound up with the achievements of science and invention. Certain it is that he had a clear forecast of the democratic tendencies which were destined to unfold themselves among us in larger and larger measures of trust in the capacity of the people for self-government.

Mr. Adams explains to us that as modern science developed more and more the capacity of man to control the forces of nature, the old-fashioned conservatism of the Federalist epoch vanished from American society, and if it still reappeared occasionally in a few venerable men who wore black coats, silk stockings, silver buckles, and powdered hair, it was, he says, only as the "stripes which sometimes reappear in the mule," to show the antiquity of its animal type. "Every foreigner and Federalist," says Mr. Adams, "agreed that Jefferson was a man of illusions, dangerous to society, and unbounded in power of evil," but, as he suggestively adds, "if this view of his character was right, it only proved that there was a vein of idealism in the national character of the American people; for it is very certain that Jefferson's opinions, in one form or another, were shared by a majority of the American people." Recognized in his day as the chosen representative of what Mr. Adams calls "the elusive spirit of American democracy," and incurring on this ground much severe opprobrium from the clergy of New England, he was so full of

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this spirit, and so greatly dreaded his own reputation as a "visionary," that he seldom or never, says the author, "uttered his whole thought." He had, more than anybody, the democratic spirit of everybody who cherished high hopes and large aspirations for the elevation of humanity. While the Federalists were hard to shock by excesses of Government, but were easily shocked by excesses of the people, Jefferson was hard to shock by excesses of the people, but was easily shocked by excesses of Government. His faith in the people was simple. It is true there was much shrewd political worldliness in all this simplicity of doctrine, and it is true, as Mr. Adams says, that all of Jefferson's hopes for the political future of man were based on the processes of a natural evolution; but this only shows that his intuitive presage of the coming age was even more "scientific" than he knew.

Mr. Adams cites again and again the saying of Hamilton, in a moment of political petulance, "Your *people*, sir—your *people* is a great beast!" What Hamilton said in his haste, men like Fisher Ames, and George Cabot, and John Adams were saying at their leisure. "Democracy cannot last," cried Ames. "I hold democracy in its natural operation to be the government of the worst," cried Cabot. "I doubt whether the love of liberty in the soul of man is much more rational, generous, or social, than it is in the soul of a wolf," exclaimed John Adams, "except in so far as it is enlightened in man by the experience, reflection, education, and civil and social institutions which are at first produced, and constantly supported and improved, by a few—that is, *by the nobility*." Such atrabilious expressions as these prove nothing against the patriotism of the Federalist leaders, except that their patriotism had soured on their stomachs. The leaders of the Federalist party seemed to themselves like so many Catos *in Romuli fœce*, to use the phrase of Cicero in one of his letters, or, as Gouverneur Morris expressed it with his characteristic humor, the Federalist of the later period "was in the awkward position of a man who continues sober after all the company are under the table." The Federalist leaders who blurted out harsh commonplaces against "democracy" were only showing how sober they kept in the revelry of the democratic debauch.

But such expressions as these, accompanied as they often were with the theoretical defence of "monarchy," seemed to Jefferson quite sufficient to justify his statement that "the political revolution of 1800 was as real a revolution in the principles of our Government as that of 1776 was in its forms." Mr. Adams seeks to minimize this pretension, and argues acutely, in the light of Jefferson's administrative measures, that it is "hard to see how any President could have been more Federalist than Jefferson himself"; that he reached out his hand to grasp the Executive powers he had once denounced; that by the Louisiana treaty he gave a fatal wound to "strict construction," and converted the Constitution into a piece of "blank paper"; that by subsequent proceedings under that act he identified himself with "the despotic acts of consolidated European governments"; and, finally, that "he who nearly dissolved the bonds of society rather than allow his predecessor to order a dangerous alien out of the country in a time of threatened war, made himself monarch of the new [Louisiana] territory, and wielded over it, against its protests, the powers of its old kings." But even after Mr. Adams has sped all these sharp arrows at his quarry, he will still find it difficult to argue against the truth of his own saying, that, "as a democrat, Jefferson's social success was sweeping and final." Whatever may have been the direct or the indirect effect of any of Jefferson's administrative measures in *federalizing* the Government, we believe it will be impossible to point to any measure which was originated by him *for the purpose* of giving "energy" to the Government against the States or the people. A policy like that, for instance, of the Federalist Oliver Wolcott, when, as Auditor of the Treasury under Alexander Hamilton, he argued in favor of taxing the people simply to make the people feel the power of the Government, even if the money raised by such taxation had to be buried, is inconceivable under the Administration of Jefferson; and a simple fact like this measures the wide interval there was between the old Federalist régime, even before it had run to seed, and the nascent Republicanism which opened its new era in our annals. Whatever else may be said in just praise or dispraise of the latter, the American people were certainly *republicanized* under Jefferson. It has been common to complain that he did his work under this head only too well.

Mr. Adams, however, complains that the energy of Jefferson's reforming zeal was soon exhausted, and that in the ever-increasing momentum impressed on the machine of government by the drift and pressure of events, the point of his departure was soon lost from sight. And one event there was which, above all others, operated, the writer thinks, a change in the character of the Government by killing the doctrine of "strict construction" in the house of its friends, and by changing the old-established balances of the Constitution. We refer to the purchase of Louisiana.

The history of the Louisiana purchase is told in these volumes for the first time with a fulness of detail which supplies missing links in that great transaction. Mr. Adams takes us behind the scenes in his explorations. The figures who here act the foremost part—Napoleon and Talleyrand, Jefferson and Madison, Chancellor Livingston and Monroe, Don Carlos IV. of Spain and Toussaint L'Ouverture of St. Domingo, Queen Doña Maria Luisa and Godoy, Pichon and Bernadotte, Leclerc and Rochambeau, Edward Stevens and Tobias Lear, Morales and Laussat—are put on the stage with all the vividness of personal character and with all the involutions which belong to this dramatic episode in our annals; and not in our annals alone, but also in those of Europe as well.

The rumor that Spain had retroceded Louisiana to France was bruited in Europe in the early part of the year 1801. The motives which inclined Napoleon to extort this transfer are to be found in certain colonizing schemes which, as devised by Talleyrand, had become "a darling object" in the mind of the First Consul. It was supposed that he saw in Louisiana "a new Egypt," a vast colonial dependency which would serve as a counterpoise to British India, a theatre for fresh military adventures, a new world for the modern Alexander to conquer, a place of exile for intractable revolutionists, and a Botany Bay for state criminals. With the prestige of Spain behind him in the New World, and with the mines of Mexico at his command, Louisiana offered him a coigne of vantage for the expansion of French power up the valley of the Mississippi, where, by cultivating alliances with warlike Indian tribes, he might hold the balance of power between the "Anglican" and the "Gallican" politics of the United States, and might even threaten the British possessions in Canada. The disastrous essay of Maximilian under Napoleon III. finds its prelude in this great project of Napoleon I. It was easy enough for Great Britain, as well as the United States, to see the embroilments to which the French occupation of Louisiana would inevitably lead. It virtually nullified the results of the Seven Years' War as ended by the Treaty of 1763. The Western States trembled for the safety of their commerce if a strong Power like France were entrenched at New Orleans. The Southern States trembled for the safety of their slave property, already put in danger by French propagandism in the West Indies. New England was disturbed because, with her Federalist proclivities, she hated the vision of "infidel France" at our doors.

Readers familiar with the state papers of that time are aware that St. Domingo was the pivot of the whole Napoleonic movement for the occupation of Louisiana. "St. Domingo was the only centre," says Mr. Adams, "from which the measures needed for rebuilding the French colonial system could radiate." Hence it came to pass that Toussaint L'Ouverture had to be crushed before Bonaparte could reach Louisiana. Mr. Adams tells the tragic story of Toussaint with a pathos inspired by the fact that, for a time, "he exercised on our history an influence as decisive as that of any European ruler." The reader is here indebted to the learned historian for much new research—a statement which we make with only the more cordiality because there are a few points, in the subsequent stages of the narrative, where we find it difficult to accept Mr. Adams's point of view. For instance, he tells us that the instructions of Madison to Livingston on the subject of the rumored retrocession of Louisiana to France "are remarkable for their mildness." We are aware that Madison has generally been commended for the "mild wisdom" which Horace praises in the Roman statesman Lælius, but we should not look to Madison's despatch on this topic for a typical specimen of that characteristic quality. On September 28, 1801, in a despatch which seems tame to Mr. Adams, Madison writes to Livingston that, in view of the rumored transfer, such a change of neighbors in Louisiana was a matter of "momentous concern," which had engaged "the most serious attention of the Executive"; that if the transfer had really been made, it was liable to lead to "collisions" which would jeopard the "harmony and confidence" then existing between the United States and France; that in case of war between France and England the Western States would come in danger of being "embroiled by military expeditions between Louisiana and Canada," while "inquietudes would be excited in the Southern States, whose numerous slaves had been taught to regard the French as the patrons of their cause"; and, finally, that a French neighborhood in Louisiana, by the "jealousies and apprehensions" it tended to inspire, might turn the thoughts of the American people towards "a closer connection" with England, and produce a "crisis" in which a very valuable part of the French dominions would be "exposed to the joint occupation of a naval and territorial Power"—that is, of England and the United States combined against France. It seems to us that a despatch of this kind is not wanting in either pith or purpose, even if it does end with a recommendation that nothing should be said or done "unnecessarily to irritate our future neighbors," and that if France could be induced to concede the free navigation of the Mississippi, and to cede the Floridas to the United States, it might "contribute to reconcile the United States to an arrangement in itself much disrelished by them." We find in

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this despatch the germ of every argument used by the United States in the subsequent stages of the negotiation, even to the extreme menace of a British alliance.

The treaty of cession was signed on the 30th of April, 1803, and covered the whole of Louisiana as Spain had possessed it. Mr. Adams thinks it difficult to penetrate the motives of Napoleon in making the great surrender of what had been "a darling object." It is, indeed, difficult to pronounce on the secret motives of an arbitrary ruler. Livingston tells us that there never was a government with which less could be done by negotiation than with France at this epoch, because "one man was everything." He adds that the "sense of every reflecting man in Paris was against the First Consul's colonizing schemes, though nobody had the courage to tell him so." But it was for this very reason that Livingston believed the drift of events, in case of war between England and France, would prove too strong for Bonaparte. Months before the cession was made, he wrote to Madison that, but for the uneasiness the matter excited at home, it would give him none, because he was persuaded that the whole business would end in the relinquishment of the country to the United States. When the outbreak of war between France and England was imminent, Lord Whitworth, the British Ambassador at Paris, wrote that the United States were likely to reap "the first fruits" of England's disagreement with Napoleon. Mr. Addington had told Rufus King that one of the first steps of the British Government, on the outbreak of war with France, would be to seize Louisiana —a well-known eventuality, which kindled the eagerness of the United States to buy and of France to sell. It would seem, therefore, as if the overpowering pressure of political events had dominated the whole situation, and that we are dispensed from the necessity of groping for an explanation in the secret recesses of Bonaparte's mind. This fact explains, too, why Bonaparte felt compelled to sell the whole of Louisiana, instead of ceding only New Orleans and the Floridas, for which Livingston had been chaffering.

CHILDREN'S BOOKS.—IV.

THERE is a novelty in a story of our civil war told from a Confederate standpoint which of itself lends a peculiar interest to Mr. G. A. Henty's 'With Lee in Virginia' (Scribner & Welford). The author has succeeded fairly well, not merely in making an entertaining tale full of exciting incident, but also in giving some local color to it. As his hero only takes part in the battles in which the Confederates were victors, as Bull Run, Fredericksburg, and Chancellorsville, we fear that his English readers will be at some loss to know why the Confederacy did not succeed in the end. His account of slavery, also, is far too favorable, ignoring, for example, the fact of the breeding of slaves for sale, the greatest dishonor which slavery brought upon Virginia in those days. Mistakes are comparatively few, the most important being the statements that the Constitution was formed in 1778, that Kansas seceded and joined the South, and that the *Monitor* had two turrets. Northern boys, moreover, would dispute the assertion that the *Monitor* withdrew first from the contest with the *Merrimac*, and they would indignantly deny the truth of the allegation that by Sherman's troops "the town of Columbia was occupied, sacked, and burned, the white men and women and even the negroes being horribly ill treated."

Mr. Willis J. Abbot's 'Battle-Fields of '61' (Dodd, Mead & Co.) is the first volume of a history of the army operations during the civil war. The title is somewhat misleading, as all the important events of the first half of 1862 are narrated, the book ending with the close of McClellan's Peninsular campaign. It is well written and entirely free from any partisan spirit. The author is at his best in his descriptions of the battles, just enough detail being given to make them thoroughly interesting, and occasionally exciting, but not so much as to confuse the reader. We have noticed several slight errors; for instance, the troops on the *Star of the West* are given as 2,000 instead of 250, and the Confederate force on Roanoke Island was 2,500, not 25,000. It was Gen. Parke (not Parker) who commanded one of the brigades on this expedition, while Gen. T. L. Crittenden played such a valiant part at the battle of Shiloh that it is a pity he is disguised under the name Cullenden. The book is handsomely got up, with some twenty-eight full-page illustrations and a few maps, but we regret the lack of an index.

Few callings excel that of our deep-sea fishermen in its varied dangers and hardships. These are most graphically described in Mr. Kirk Munroe's 'Dorymates' (Harper & Bros.). "Breeze" McCloud, a very winning lad, courageous and unselfish, is picked up at sea by a Gloucester fishing schooner when an infant, and adopted by the captain. As soon as he is old enough, he ships for a cruise for early mackerel off Cape Hatteras. During the next few months one adventure follows another in rapid succession, bringing in almost all the misfortunes which could befall a fisherman. Several times he goes adrift in a dory, is lost in the fog, caught by the ice, imprisoned in an iceberg, seized by an octopus, as well as kidnapped and shipwrecked.

For one thing we can heartily commend Mr. J. T. Trowbridge's new story, 'The Adventures of David Vane and David Crane' (Boston: D. Lothrop Co.), namely, its warm advocacy of the pleasures and advantages of a country life. At this day, when the set of the current is all towards the town, it is refreshing to read of a city boy who prefers work on a farm to being a clerk in a store. The story is interesting and, at times, amusing, the two Davids being mistaken for each other with a resulting "comedy of errors." The little country girl Huldah is an original and very attractive character, as is also David Vane, who, we are glad to say, makes a great success as a farmer.

'Lotus Bay: A Summer on Cape Cod,' by Laura D. Nichols (Boston: D. Lothrop Co.), is a pleasant book for young people, which reminds us of those culinary combinations of custard, jelly, cake, and almonds, ingredients which seem to have no necessary relation to one another, yet which in mingling do not suggest incongruity. There is no climax or plot, no story properly speaking, but an agreeable mixture of bits of life by the seashore, useful information, moral teaching by example rather than precept, and occasional quaint or pretty poetical quotations. The author's style is good, the book shows unvarying good taste, and is embellished by attractive if not always new illustrations.

'The Achievements of Youth' (T. Nelson & Sons), by Rev. Robert Steel, D.D., is one of those well-meaning books which, as a Christmas present, do *not* waken any very profound feelings of gratitude in the ordinary boy. The author's design is excellent, and if he had taken more pains in carrying it out, he would have made a useful and stimulating work. He has chosen, however, simply to throw together a large mass of biographical notes with very little attempt at any order or arrangement beyond that of the professions, prefacing and closing the chapters with a few conventional comments or quotations. It is difficult to see why some of these notes have found their way into his pages, as this, for instance: "Turenne (1611–1675) studied the art of war under Prince Maurice, who was his uncle, and rose rapidly to high command, and got a marshal's baton in the camp for the achievements of his youth." His omissions are quite as remarkable. He says nothing, for example, of that precocious genius Baratière, who at the age of five could speak French, Latin, and Dutch with ease and read Greek fluently, and, when about eleven, translated from the Hebrew Tudela's 'Itinerarium.' On the other hand, we have read with much interest his account of Mr. Whitelaw Reid, who appears in the chapter headed "Young Prose Writers." Among other things Dr. Steel says: "At twenty-three he was acknowledged to be the ablest advocate of the claims of Lincoln to the Presidency." Mr. Greeley's life-work is briefly summed up as stamping "the character of the *Tribune;* but Mr. Reid, who succeeded him at the age of thirty, improved the paper beyond the dream of its founder." As we should here read thirty-five for thirty, we find the statement too rhetorical that "the organization of the complete corps in and out of the office was the work of Mr. Reid while yet the dew of youth lay on his brow."

Girls will greatly enjoy 'Queen Hildegarde,' a story addressed to them by Laura E. Richards (Boston: Estes & Lauriat). It is sweet and wholesome, with a distinct purpose, yet without the appearance of "preaching." Hildegardis Graham, the petted only daughter of wealthy parents, finds to her dismay that they are for the first time to leave her behind when they take a journey. Her sensible mamma, fearing that Hilda is getting frivolous and shallow in her artificial city life, decides to leave her in the country for three months with her own old nurse, now the wife of a well-to-do farmer. The girl, called the queen of her fastidious set at home, goes to the farm, and finds all her high breeding severely strained not to express openly her disdain at her homely surroundings. Preparing herself to be thoroughly wretched, she overhears a conversation between the farmer and his wife, in which Dame Lucy tries to explain the dear mother's plan; and the girl's wish to be some time what her mother wishes, grows into a resolve. The change comes almost too suddenly to be artistic, but it is very welcome, and the book goes on with interesting accounts of her life and occupations at the farm. An agreeable humor pervades the book without in the least jarring upon the sense of fitness. The finding of the buried jewels is perhaps a trifle improbable.

'Swanhilde, and Other Fairy Tales,' adapted from the German by Carrie N. Horwitz (D. Lothrop Co.), is somewhat in the vein of the 'Arabian Nights,' minus the objectionable features. They are all full of interest, and the English is particularly good: it has not the appearance of being a stiff and foreign imitation of our mother tongue which more literal translations from the German are too apt to have. The little illustrations, marginal and otherwise, scattered throughout, are very expressive and often exceedingly humorous.

It would be hard to say whether 'Lil' (Boston: Roberts Bros.) is more ill adapted to children or to grown people. The opening chapters are by far the best, and these, if any, are what the children will care for. But too-

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soon comes the "Five Years After" chapter, when everybody is grown up and the complications begin. If this book appeared in a paper cover at twenty cents, it would be quite what was to be expected. It is merely a mild repetition of dozens of English stories, in which the supposably rightful heir is shown to be not such, since an unknown daughter of an elder son duly appears from India, that convenient habitation for mysteries. After falling properly in love with her and refusing to acknowledge it through fear of being called a fortune-hunter, the hero discovers at last that she is after all not the heiress, because she was substituted in infancy for the real cousin, who died. Thereupon he joyfully marries her, resolving never to let her know the facts. The language, if bright, is loose and careless to a degree.

Amy Walton's 'White Lilac' (Scribner & Welford) is a rather unusually pretty story of humble English life. There is a touch of real pathos where the poor, gentle little girl's mother dies suddenly in her chair, just as the child is being crowned May Queen, and is expecting to see her mother's face every moment at the merry-making as the particular delight of that exciting day. Her quiet, helpful life afterwards with her relatives at Orchards Farm shows a Cinderella-like unselfishness. Many of the characters are good, Mrs. Wishing especially, with her helpless, hopeless "but *I* dunno," as a final modification of her limp remarks. As a whole, the story is entertaining and helpful.

English children may be contented with so tame a story as Mrs. Molesworth's 'The Rectory Children' (Macmillan). It is certainly inoffensive and unexceptionably moral, but is utterly lacking in sparkling attractiveness. It opens prettily and somewhat tenderly with a lonely little girl waiting in a small back parlor behind the shop for her mother to be through the business and come in to see her and her two little new dolls; but it is prosy throughout.

Miss Jewett's 'Betty Leicester' (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) contains no more incident than the foregoing volume—indeed, it is without even so exciting an adventure as the narrow escape from drowning which, while forming the only relief from the otherwise dead level of Mrs. Molesworth's story, accents Biddy's wilfulness in the most approved fashion; yet it possesses the vital touch without which no incident can impress itself; with which the simplest details are imbued with a real life of their own. The descriptions of country life and scenes are exquisite. There are good suggestions to those whose lives have become so fixed in a narrow and unchanging routine that even the simplest form of entertaining seems momentous and overpowering. "Wherever you may put two persons, one is always hostess and the other always guest," says Betty's cosmopolitan friend Mrs. Duncan. Everything is invested with a simple and healthful but constant interest, from the beginning, where Betty starts alone, with some misgiving, for Tideshead, to the very last page, when she and her father are leaving the quaint little village with real regret, albeit to take up their wider life once more.

Winters in Algeria. Written and illustrated by Frederick Arthur Bridgman. Harper & Bros. 1890. Pp. viii-262. Sq. 8vo.

'An Artist's Impressions of Algeria' would better describe this attractive book than the title which Mr. Bridgman has chosen for it. Everything in it has some connection with his art, generally growing out of his excursions in search of subjects for pictures, or of his more extended sketching-tours. These latter are narrated much after the fashion of an ordinary book of travels, but all that part relating to the city of Algiers consists of a series of detached descriptions, principally of street scenes and the life of the humbler classes of the natives. These are very well done, and, with the aid of the numerous excellent illustrations, enable the reader to form a clear idea of certain phases of Algerian life and character. We regret, however, that the author, the first of whose winter visits to the province was paid in 1872, and who is evidently a close and interested observer, has not attempted, at least, to show what influence French rule has had, during the time which he has known the country, upon its resources, the habits of the people, their modes of thought, and the way in which they regard foreigners. It is somewhat remarkable that, considering his numerous opportunities, he has thrown so little light upon these interesting points.

The majority of the people, it is evident, still object strongly to being painted, and have an especial hatred, mixed with fear, of the photographer, though they are not displeased if their neighbors' faces appear upon the canvas, or even they themselves, provided it is done without their knowledge. The curious way in which a Moslem will satisfy his conscience in matters of religion is well illustrated by an Arab artist's method of evading the command of the Koran not to make an image of anything that has life. One of the mosques in Algiers has a "lovely little minaret covered with ancient tiles, many of which represent birds flying." The birds are full of life, but the artist has traced a line around the neck of each. "Their throats are cut, therefore they must be dead! Thus his conscience is saved." Mr. Bridgman established very friendly relations with many of the Algerians, and was admitted freely to their houses. But these were apparently all of the poorer class, and we are left in ignorance as to whether the houses of the rich were equally open to the visits of Christians. The poor, however, were not necessarily of a low rank in life. "Descendants of the best blood, in fact, are often found among merchants in a small way, who sell a few yards of calico, eggs and butter, orange-flower water, and, for one sou apiece, strings of orange-blossoms, with an occasional red geranium attached."

The author's sketching tours, made at different visits, carried him as far as Tunis in the east and Tlemçen (not far from the frontier of Morocco) in the west. But the most interesting of these tours was to Biskra, in an oasis on the confines of the Sahara. The starting point was the wonderfully picturesque town of Constantine, perched on the summit of a rock which rises perpendicularly nearly a thousand feet above the level of the plain. Its curious houses and streets, which made the place attractive to the artist, are fast disappearing before "the encroaching French buildings, which threaten soon to replace the picturesque element and wipe it out for ever by new broad boulevards and squares, gravel-walks, trees, and hideous barracks." Biskra is a twenty-four hours' ride by diligence from Constantine, and to one who imagines Algeria to be a land of perpetual summer, it will be a somewhat disagreeable surprise to read of snow and ice by the roadside, and of the traveller's joy at finding a blazing fire at an inn where a stop was made for coffee. For hours the road lay amid "black bushes, among gray rocks, pine-trees and cedars," a veritable Norway landscape and swept by an icy wind. Then, within a short distance of Biskra, there was "a sudden turn at the bottom of the hill," and Mr. Bridgman was "in a paradise of warmth and beauty," surrounded by groves of almond, orange, and lime trees, and a perfect forest of date-palms. The principal point of attraction in this place was the great café, whose "ceiling and walls were entirely hidden by immense hand-woven blankets ornamented with every conceivable combination of stripe, lozenge, and square, and by other draperies used by the women as part of their costume. The palm-trunk pillars, surrounded by a circular bench and supporting the roof, were wound round and festooned with printed calicoes; and colored-paper lanterns gave a charming soft light over the assembly."

Excursions were made from this point into the desert, during one of which the author was overtaken by a sand-storm, which he describes in a very vivid manner. He is at his best, however, in his descriptions of interiors, and we will close our notice of his very entertaining volume with this account of a house in a desert village:

"They sat in a circle, young and old, grandfather, grandmother, father, wife, and several children, all dipping into the wooden dish which stood on its own pedestal in their midst. Kids and young dogs were also poking their noses under the children's arms, looking with longing eyes of expectancy. Their horse, a fine gray Arab, was eating his grass near them, his feet fettered to the ground, close by the black hole, just big enough to accommodate him, which was on one side of the humble dwelling, and in which he could be kept by a rope across the entrance. Streaks of sunlight, making solid beams of the blue smoke, fell on a multitude of utensils of all sorts. There was a handmill made of two flat and round granite stones, the top stone turning on a pivot by a handle on one side, and placed on a sheepskin, which caught the yellow flour."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, M. The Continuous Creation: An Application of the Evolutionary Philosophy to the Christian Religion. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
An Appeal to Pharaoh: The Negro Problem and its Radical Solution. Fords, Howard & Hulbert. $1.
Babyhood. Vol. V. Babyhood Publishing Co.
Balmaseda, F. J. Enfermedades de las Aves: Ensayos sobre Patornitologia, y Consideraciones sobre Higiene Publica en la Isla de Cuba. Havana: E. F. Casona.
Bancroft, H. H. History of Utah. San Francisco: The History Publishing Co.; New York: J. C. Derby.
Bentzon, Th. Expiation. Willard Fracker Co.
Besant, W. The Bell of St. Paul's. Harper & Bros. 35 cents.
Bibliothèque de l'Ecole des Hautes Etudes. Sciences Religieuses. 1er Vol. Etudes de Critique et d'Histoire. Paris: E. Leroux.
Blackmore, R. D. Kit and Kitty. Harper & Bros. 35 cents.
Chapin, F. H. Mountaineering in Colorado. Boston: W. B. Clarke & Co.
Clark, A. Register of the University of Oxford. Part IV. Indexes. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Cooley, W. F. Emmanuel: The Story of the Messiah. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Coombs, Anne S. The Garden of Armida. Cassell & Co. 50 cents.
Daudet, A. Jack. Geo. Routledge & Sons.
Dobson, Austin. Poems. 2 vols. Dodd, Mead & Co. $4.
Donisthorpe, W. Individualism: A System of Politics. Macmillan & Co. $4.
Eschstruth, Baroness von. Polish Blood. John B. Alden. $1.
Fausset, Rev. W. Y. The Student's Cicero. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Fawcett, Mrs. H. Some Eminent Women of Our Times. Macmillan & Co. 75 cents.
Folk-Lore and Legends. 4 vols. Oriental, Germany, Scotland, Ireland. White & Allen.
Frothingham, W., and Tower, C. Our Book. G. W. Dillingham.
Gates, W. F. Musical Mosaics. Philadelphia: Theo. Presser. $1.50.
Good Form: Cards—Their Significance and Proper Uses. Frederick A. Stokes & Bro. 75 cents.
Hallward, R. F. Flowers of Paradise. Macmillan & Co. $2.
Hannover, E. Antoine Watteau. Berlin: Robert Oppenheimer.
Harben, W. N. White Marie. Cassell & Co. 50 cents.
Hawaiian Reports. Vol. VI. Honolulu.
Helmburg, W. Magdalen's Fortunes. Worthington Co.
Kimball, Harriet McE. Poems. Completed ed. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.50.
Kingsford, Mrs. Anna B. Dreams and Dream Stories. Frank F. Lovell & Co. 50 cents.
Kingsley, C. Hypatia. Macmillan & Co.
Larcom, Lucy. A New England Girlhood, Outlined from Memory. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 75 cents.
Lawton, W. C. Three Dramas of Euripides. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Leonowens, Mrs. A. H. Our Asiatic Cousins. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.50.
Le Plongeon, Alice D. Here and There in Yucatan. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.

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